The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 25, 1893.

The Week.

In some respects, the present money situation is very extraordinary. Speculative collapses have in great measure already spent their force. The "industrial" bubble has been pricked in New York, the South African bubble in London, and the Australian distress has reached a point where at any rate nothing can develop worse than what is already known. In both New York and London, business embarrassments at one time gravely threatened have been averted by the prompt and judicious aid of outside capital. That the situation is better, from a Stock Exchange standpoint, the recent recovery in market prices amply attests. Yet, in the face of all this, the money market continues in a state of most unusual tension and derangement. In London, discount rates have reached the highest point in months; the Bank rate, always the barometer of conservative judgment, has been twice advanced, and all the exchanges on London are near the highest point. With us, the last fortnight's liquidation has released from Wall Street loans an immense amount of hitherto "tied-up" funds, yet these can scarcely be obtained on any terms for long time, while for merchants' paper there is almost no open market whatever. It is quite true, the banks are properly and cautiously supplying the needs of their own regular customers, so that local merchants generally find their immediate wants provided for. But this very conservatism leads to the refusal of "rediscounts" by New York city banks of notes offered by interior institutions. The Western banks have found themselves quite unable to increase their own resources by establishing fresh credits in New York. This is the explanation of the suspensions, almost daily, of weak or carelessly managed Southern and Western banks. The situation, in short, amounts to a quiet money-scare, extending throughout the country, and its outcome fairly baffles conjecture.

The *Yale Review* for May examines the contention of those financiers who think the Treasury Department ought to issue bonds at once in order to keep the $100,000,000 gold reserve intact. It regards such a policy as indefensible, whether it be supported for the purpose of getting more gold or of creating public confidence. It considers the situation of the Government analogous to that of a man whose outgo exceeds his income, and who is advised to mortgage his house in order to reassure his creditors, while doing nothing to redress the balance of outgo and income. This is unquestionably the right view to take of the question. The trouble at Washington is exactly like that of a man whose bills come in faster than he can meet them. It is not a deficiency of gold particularly that distresses the Treasury; it is a deficiency of dollars of any description. The Secretary's plight is like that of the man who, having heard that a certain bank had failed, ran home to see whether he had any of its notes, and found that he had none of the issues of that bank or of any other. Add fifty millions to the public receipts or knock off fifty millions from the expenses, and all trouble will disappear. Fifty millions of expenses might be curtailed by repealing the Sherman Silver-Purchase Law, without disturbing anybody except the silver-miners. This would speedily replenish the gold balance and restore public confidence. The *Review* holds that if bonds are sold in order to replenish the $100,000,000 reserve, it is immaterial whether they are sold abroad or at home.

One factor in the complex question of gold exports and imports is very generally overlooked. It would not be supposed, by the majority of financial observers, that the money brought into this country by immigrants would cut any considerable figure in the international gold movement. Yet the complete returns of the Commissioner of Immigration for the last fiscal year show that in the second half of that period the money brought on the persons of immigrants was no less than $3,060,908. During the whole year the amount thus carried into the country was probably nearer seven than six millions, which is a sum by no means to be despised in making up the international balance sheet. All that a study of these various factors shows, however, is the utter hopelessness of tallying even approximately both sides of the account. Least of all can the probable movement of gold be guessed at by subtracting, as many critics undertake to do, gross merchandise exports from the gross imports, or imports from the exports. Not only do the drafts on our bankers by American tourists in Europe play an essential part, and the international movement of investment capital and interest, but the operation of Gresham's law—the export of the best money in a redundant currency—is as certain under some conditions as it is always obscure. All of these factors have had a share in the astonishing gold movement of the last twelve months, and the influence of the factor last mentioned has certainly not been least. A redundant circulating medium leads to low interest rates on all good loans, and high prices on all unquestioned investments, both of which symptoms our own markets have long displayed. That our soundest money should leave us under such conditions was as certain as the fall of physical substances under the law of gravitation.

The *Tribune* furnishes, via Washington, the history of the forgeries which made their way into the first edition of the American Case. These were the work of a native Russian named Petroff, who had been for several years in the service of the Government, "in responsible positions," and had "visited Alaska several times as its agent," and was a good linguist. But although his translations were used in making up the Case, no one seems to have thought of the necessity, in a matter of such importance, of comparing them with the original through some other authority—say a member of the Russian Legation; and the frauds were not discovered until the Case was actually in the hands of the counsel who were to argue it before the Tribunal. Everything was then done, and done promptly, by notice to the British Agent and otherwise, to set the matter to rights, including the extraction of a full confession from Petroff. But it should all have been done in the beginning. It is said in the explanation that no reference was made to the forgeries in the diplomatic correspondence by Mr. Blaine or anybody else. No formal reference, perhaps, but that they furnished ideas and vehemence of assertion to Mr. Blaine's arguments there can hardly be a doubt. For poor Petroff we cannot help feeling some pity. Having been for some years in the service of the Government, and having thus become acquainted with the methods of the Republican party, in its various controversies with free-traders, Mugwumps, and other wicked men, it was not unnatural that he should, to use his own words, have "supposed by making false translations and interpretations he would ingratiate himself into favor." This is what numerous journalistic youths said to themselves in the campaigns of 1884 and 1888, when they forged and interpolated from the English newspapers for the benefit of the tariff. One of them a year or two ago was in the *Tribune* office, and cut off the qualifying clause of a quoted sentence and converted a comma into a period. When found out, far from being dismissed and made to write a confession, like Petroff, he was allowed to laugh over the matter in the columns of his paper, and deride the moralists who made such a fuss about "cutting the tail off a comma."

Secretary Gresham is represented as holding that the Geary Act cannot be enforced without further action by Congress, because there is no money with which to carry out its provisions. This seems a reasonable view of the situation. Executive officers are forbidden to incur expenses

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without authority of law, and the trifling amount appropriated by Congress for the enforcement of the Geary Act absolutely prevents its execution. Nobody now believes that Congress will ever appropriate the millions which would be required to deport a hundred thousand people. It is far more likely that these provisions of the law will be repealed at the next session. Unfortunately, irreparable mischief has already been done. The republic has enacted one of the most brutal laws ever passed in a civilized country. That is all that China or any other nation knows about the matter. We cannot easily explain that we "only did it for fun," as the children say; that it was merely a piece of nonsense devised solely for campaign purposes, and intended to be thrown away with the rest of the rubbish after the election was held. This is the simple truth; but to disgrace the nation for buncombe is only less discreditable to American statesmanship than if we had done it in earnest.

Six years ago we characterized the Grand Army as a machine for getting pensions, and time is making clear the accuracy of the description. We were not then aware of the fact that, so long ago as 1884, the claim-agents had inveigled the National Encampment into the passage of this resolution:

> "Resolved, That all petitions, resolutions, and memorials by posts in regard to pension legislation be required to be forwarded to National Headquarters through Department Headquarters, and that posts be forbidden to make separate and independent applications to Congress for legislation upon the subject of pensions."

Nor had it then happened that a State Department had declared a post "in contempt of the laws of the order" for sending "a series of resolutions direct to posts without the approval of the Department Commander and National Headquarters," for "criticising the legislative power of the country in passing laws which stand in the statutes of the United States, and should be respected until repealed," and for "condemning the sworn officers of the Government whose duty it is to execute these laws"—the sole offence of the post consisting in a manly deliverance against reckless and extravagant pension legislation. But even six years ago it was clear that all the tendencies were in this direction, and nobody should be surprised that Noah L. Farnham Post of this city has at last been turned out of the Grand Army simply because it resented the attempt to make the organization nothing more than a pension machine. This action will open the eyes of a great many people who have been slow to believe that the Grand Army had become so utterly demoralized.

We are very glad to see, and hope the report is true, that Capt. Higginson is to have a court of inquiry or court-martial, as soon as the *Atlanta* gets back with the witnesses, to find out whether he was purposely or negligently slow in coaling his ship, and whether his request for fresh boiler tubes for a damaged boiler was malicious and insubordinate. This ought not to be a favor, granted in the discretion of the Secretary; it ought to be the right of every officer who is dismissed from his ship as a penalty. That there should be any doubt or discussion about the matter is a discredit to every American. If the accused officer is acquitted, too, he ought to get the back pay he lost by his unjust removal. No Secretary of the Navy or other functionary ought to have the power of suddenly cutting down the salary of an officer of either branch of our military service, as a punishment, except through the judgment of an impartial tribunal which has heard the defendant and his witnesses.

The present system of enforcing what is called "discipline" in the higher ranks of the naval service is fit only for Turkey or Russia. An officer may have a frightful penalty, containing both a heavy fine and a professional stigma, inflicted by a mere edict of the Navy Department, for reasons that may be on their face frivolous, and he has no redress whatever. He cannot even appeal to the public, for he is sternly prohibited from writing to the newspapers or causing or permitting communications to be made to the press on his behalf. The Secretary has then only to keep quiet himself about the matter, as Secretaries generally do, and, if the officer has no friend in Congress to take up his cause, he finds himself enveloped, with his humiliation and privation, in a silence as deep as that which, according to the poet, preceded the battle of Copenhagen. But such silence ought not in a free country to be permitted for one moment to surround the official act of any public servant, especially when it affects the property or reputation of any fellowman. It is hardly accurate, however, to call this silence absolute, for the Navy Department is apt to be haunted, as all seats of despotic power are, by newspaper and other sycophants and parasites, who, when an unfortunate officer is struck by a *ukase* or *hatti*, are let loose on him, to spread all over the land the official version of his disgrace, and set the "patriotic" world to chuckle over the stern way in which naval officers are held to their duty by the accomplished navigator at the head of the Navy Department. The system is a national discredit, and must prove, as the navy grows, destructive of anything like a high sense of professional honor among the officers. There must be a legal presumption that the commanders of American men-of-war are gentlemen and do not lie, or skulk, or shirk, to be upset only by strong proof and full inquiry.

The widespread discussion of the Harris case has reopened the old question as to the wisdom of inflicting the death penalty upon murderers, and the whole country will therefore be interested in the action of any State upon the subject. Forty-six years ago Michigan abolished the gallows. On Friday the House of Representatives, by a vote of more than two to one, passed a bill restoring the death penalty, and there is thought to be no doubt of the Senate's concurrence. The attitude of the Legislature appears to represent correctly the condition of public sentiment throughout the State. The revolution in public sentiment thus recorded has been somewhat hastened and emphasized by the murder of a keeper in the State prison by a convict who was under sentence to life imprisonment for the murder of his own mother; but the main cause for the change in popular feeling is the large number of murders in the State of late years. During 1887 and 1888 the number was 117; in 1889 and 1890, 124; in 1891 and 1892, 129. The population of Michigan was only a little above 2,000,000 in 1890, so that the proportion of murders is extremely large. Moreover, an uncommon percentage of the crimes have been of a peculiarly atrocious type. The debate in the Legislature revived the familiar arguments, pro and con; but the hopeless obstacle for the supporters of life imprisonment was the demonstration of the notorious fact that nominal life imprisonment in this country really means only about ten years on the average. This is due to the almost universal abuse of the pardoning power.

Congressman "Jerry" Simpson is putting himself at the head of a grand agitation which has just sprung up in Kansas, among the Populists, for the building of a new railroad to be owned by the people of the States through which it is to pass. This is the latest plan for the abolition of poverty and the deliverance of the people from the tyranny of the monopolists. The new line is to start from Bismarck, N. D., and run through the Dakotas, Nebraska, Kansas, Oklahoma, and Texas, terminating at Galveston. The population of each of these States is to own the portion of it that lies within the State, and meetings in advocacy of its construction are being held all over Kansas and Nebraska. "Jerry" Simpson says the scheme is quite "feasible," and "Jerry" ought to know. The line will, as we see, be a very long one, and we may be sure that under piecemeal Populist management in each State it will supply about fifteen hundred miles of daily fun. Invalids, to whom time was of no consequence, would certainly use it for the sake of the tonic merriment its working would supply. No mention, that has reached us, has been made of the source of the money which is to be spent in its construction. But this is a mere detail. "Capital," in the ordinary sense of the term, meaning the savings of individuals, would certainly not be used for the purpose, for capital to the Populist is an accursed thing, and the cause of nearly as much

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human woe as "man's first disobedience." The money will probably consist of paper issued by each State, and "based," as Jerry Simpson suggested some time ago, on the silver in some "mountain" along the line, after the quantity has been ascertained by the careful survey of Populist engineers or other learned men. There must be an argentiferous mountain somewhere between Texas and South Dakota suitable for "basing" purposes.

The Republican members of the late New York Legislature have put forth what is known in the party press as a "scathing" review of the work of the Democratic majority in that body. Much that is said in it is true, but the high assumption which pervades it that the Republicans would have done the State far better service had they been in power, is amusing to any one who is familiar with the record of the Legislature during the years when it had a Platt Republican majority. The passage about the Sheehan "sneak" bills for Buffalo is especially edifying. One would infer from reading this burst of virtuous indignation that the Republican members had done their utmost in this "disgraceful scene" to prevent the robbery of the Mayor and municipality of Buffalo of their rights, but the record shows that they were doing nothing of the sort. On the contrary, they helped Sheehan to pass his bill. The vote in the Senate stood 20 in favor of the bill and 5 against it, and three of the five negative votes were cast by Democrats. The vote in the Assembly stood 76 for to 34 against, though there were 54 Republican members.

There was naturally a considerable overflow of Presbyterian sermonizing in the papers of Monday, and it did not fail to reveal differences of opinion on various subjects. The President's pastor in New York does not appear to be of one mind with the President's pastor in Washington on the Briggs case. The former, who uniformly voted in favor of the accused professor in his trials before Presbytery, preached eloquently on Sunday in favor of harmony, without mentioning names, whereupon the Washington pastor, in whose pulpit the whole scene took place, could not contain himself, and remarked, "in a deliberate and emphatic manner and in a loud voice," that the real cause of the dissension in the Church was Dr. Briggs, "in whose shoes I would not be for all the world." This plainness of speech, it must be confessed, is somewhat refreshing, after the usual circumlocutions of pulpit discourse, and brings to mind the story of another Briggs and another preacher, viz., Gov. Briggs of Massachusetts and the eccentric Father Taylor, the sailors' pastor of Boston. The latter, on the eve of a State election, was making the usual decorous prayer on the subject, asking the Lord to give the people for Governor "a man who will rule in the fear of God, etc., etc.," when he suddenly broke off: "Pshaw, Lord! What's the use of boxing the compass like that—give us Gov. Briggs!"

An equally uncertain sound comes from the Presbyterian trumpet on the question of the opening of the World's Fair on Sunday. The Rev. Mr. Rossiter of this city sees a "religious crisis" in the fact that the Board of Governors "openly say, for the sake of the almighty dollar, 'We will take the risks of Jehovah's anger.'" He does not seem to have developed this thought, but would doubtless agree with the sentiment of pious Congressman Morse, that it would be particularly dangerous to trifle with the Almighty this year when he has the cholera so handy. Anyhow, he is sure that there is going to be "a harvest of crime," and he calls upon the Rev. Dr. Barrows, the head of the Christian Congress of Religions at the Fair, to "drop that work." But the same Dr. Barrows, who is the influential pastor of the First Presbyterian Church of Chicago, dropped something quite different on Friday evening, when he came out strongly for the opening of the Fair on Sunday. He opposed the "religious boycott" and the "violent resolutions passed by certain clergymen," vindicated the standing and the motives of the men in favor of Sunday opening, and brought out the essential absurdity of supposing that the conscientious scruples of those who do not live in Chicago should be allowed to control the actions of people who do live there. The Rev. Mr. Rossiter ought to get some new ideas about his "harvest of crime" by reading these words of Dr. Barrows:

> "Let us see what is already open on Sunday in our cosmopolitan city: six thousand saloons; the theatres and vile houses are in full blast on Sunday. And here, side by side with them, is the most magnificent Exposition the world ever saw, closed and barred. A noble educational institution must be shut up to thousands of people while the bad places profit by it. What foreigners cannot understand is that things they have brought here to be put in a grand Fair must be covered up, while the basest of things are allowed to be opened outside."

Nothing queerer or more naïf has appeared in the *Tribune* for a good while than its article on Friday entitled "A Great Man Hissed." It contains a very scathing and proper denunciation of the hissing of Mr. Gladstone at the royal reception at the Imperial Institute in London the other day by the fashionable crowd who constituted a large part of the audience. It compares them with the street mob who flung stones and mud at Mr. Gladstone's house, when he was, a few years ago, "denouncing Turkish inhumanity and un-English diplomacy" under Beaconsfield. It calls them "ruffians," "brutal," and "ill-mannered," and eulogizes in the strongest terms the victim of their wrath. Now this, though very good of its kind, is funny; and the fun lies in the fact that the *Tribune* has for years been paying a writer for showing, week after week, in wearisome iteration, that Mr. Gladstone deserves to be hissed. In fact, it would not be strange if this man was himself among the hissers at the Imperial Institute. He loves such gatherings, and consorts as much as he can with such people. Moreover, he has for years served up in the *Tribune*, on a salary paid by the *Tribune*, the talk of the hissers about Mr. Gladstone and his works and ways, as true and just. He describes him sometimes as a fool and at others as a knave, but always as plotting against the British Empire for the gratification of a selfish ambition, in combination with Irish murderers and thieves. If the hissers ever read Squire Smalley's letters, and knew nothing about Gladstone but what they saw there, they would naturally and properly hiss him on sight. But the truth is, that what appears in the letters is simply the random talk which he picks up at their dinner-tables, and turns into "copy," and the *Tribune* pays for, and presents to its American readers as a fair picture of the man whom it calls in its editorial columns "the aged statesman" who "stands for Burns's gospel that 'a man's a man for a' that.'"

The French McKinley, M. Méline, recently made a speech before the Association of French Industries, of which he is the President, and from it we learn that protection in France is withstood in the same wicked and irrational ways as in this country. A benevolent high tariff there cannot escape the efforts of bad men to repeal it, any more than here, and there is the same need of appealing to the voters to "save the country" over again at each election. There is, too, the same complaint that the educated people of the country are mostly mere doctrinaires, caring more for foreigners than for their own fellow-countrymen, and also that the influential newspapers are all against protection. It seemed a horrible thing to M. Méline that the Parisian press should be almost a unit against him, and he called upon the Association to establish a powerful daily paper to "defend the interests of French producers." This suggestion was received with favor, and it was unanimously voted that "a great daily journal" should be founded. We call the attention of some of our own protectionist editors, temporarily out of office and out of work, to this opening. Finally, we find M. Méline, in the stress of an electoral contest, discovering as sudden a love for foreign trade as McKinley did last summer, and, like his great American prototype, putting his hand on his heart and declaring that his tariff was the most unselfish and patriotic law ever enacted. With a flourish worthy of Senator Hoar himself, M. Méline wound up by saying: "I assure you on my conscience that the duties in my tariff are not too high."

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FINANCIAL LEGISLATION.

WASHINGTON despatches affirm, with some approach to unanimity, that Secretary Carlisle favors a repeal of the Sherman Silver-Purchase Act, and a repeal of the tax on the notes of State banks, and the enactment of an income tax. The second part of this plan—the repeal of the tax on State-bank notes—is supposed to be in the nature of a concession or compromise for the repeal of the Silver Act. It is understood, also, that the repeal of the tax is not to be unconditional. It is to be coupled with provisions which shall secure the note-holders at all events. The naming of these conditions will be the chief problem of such legislation if it be seriously considered.

We think that the unconditional repeal of this tax would be quite as harmful as the present Silver Law, perhaps even more so. The Silver Law is, at most, a tax of $45,000,000 per year. It is a known sum. The burden on the taxpayers cannot become greater unless the price of silver rises; it may become less. At all events we know how much it is, to a small fraction. The Treasury buys the bullion to-day, gives notes for it, and redeems the notes to-morrow, or whenever they are presented. No more of these notes will stay out than are called for by the commercial world. When the circulation is full, the notes will drop back into the Treasury as fast as they are issued.

It is obvious that a new tax equal to the purchases of silver bullion, say $45,000,000 per year, would produce equilibrium in the Treasury on this point. Then the purchases might go on as long as the people would sanction such folly. An income tax would meet this requirement. An equal sum might be obtained from a slight increase of the taxes on beer and tobacco. A reënactment of the stamp duties which were in force during the war and some time later would accomplish the same purpose. One-quarter of this sum might be saved by merely repealing the sugar bounties, which are pretty sure to be wiped out any way. What the taxpaying powers of the country are may be inferred from the fact that in the year 1866 the national revenues were $558,000,000, the population at that time being only 35,000,000, and the Southern States being absolutely impoverished and scarcely worth taking account of in a financial way. The revenues for the year 1891 were only $456,000,000, with a population of 64,000,000 and the South restored to its proper status financially and otherwise. The population has been practically doubled since 1866, and its taxpaying power per capita has increased enormously. Yet the taxes actually collected in 1891 were only $7.13 per capita, while in 1866 they were $15.73 per capita. This shows that it only needs a little courage and skill to procure abundant supplies for all the needs of the National Government, including the wasteful silver purchases and the wasteful and demoralizing pensions.

The tax that would be imposed upon the people by heterogeneous issues of State-bank notes is an unknown sum. We have abundant reasons, drawn from history, for thinking that it would be a very large sum. Although State-bank notes could not be made legal tender, people could not very well refuse them. The wage-earning classes would be obliged to receive them from their employers and the shop-keepers from their customers. Moreover, everybody would be obliged to keep counterfeit-detectors in order to protect themselves against fraud, and these detectors would soon become bulky volumes. Of course no State would knowingly allow bank-notes to be issued on insufficient security, but neither did they knowingly allow such things before the war. Yet $12,000,000 of such notes were issued and were in circulation in Indiana, Illinois, and Wisconsin before the war, upon which the average loss was about 50 per cent. The banking laws passed in some of the Southern States the past winter are of the same sort as the old wildcat banking laws of the ante-bellum period. They are based on the idea that State and county bonds can be safely transmuted into bank-notes; an idea that has broken down in practice wherever it has been tried—even in New York, where it had its origin, and where it had the best chances of success.

The very lowest terms that should be accepted as a condition of a repeal of the tax on State-bank notes is that the States should be responsible for all the notes issued under their authority, and should allow themselves to be sued in the Federal courts for any default in the redemption thereof. Even then the credit of the notes would be no greater than that of the States responsible for them, and this, we need not say, is very slim in the case of Mississippi, Tennessee, Louisiana, Virginia, South Carolina, and Minnesota. By going back another generation the list of repudiating States might be greatly enlarged. It must be borne in mind, too, by those who would make a swap of State-bank notes against silver, that more votes may be lost in the North and East than can be gained for it in the South. The Republicans in Congress would oppose State-bank notes on partisan as well as economical grounds, and their loss could not be made good.

FOREIGN MISSIONS IN CHINA.

SEVERAL Presbyterian missionaries to China, now in this country, have given their views of the Chinese Exclusion Act, which the Supreme Court has finally decided to be constitutional. They denounce it as not only bad in itself, unchristian, and even inhuman, but as destined to have an almost fatal effect upon Christian missions in China. Dr. Condit was emphatic in regard to the personal peril in which the American missionaries would at once be put, and quoted a letter from Dr. Martin, the President of the Imperial College in Pekin, in which it was said that the Chinese Minister had already declared his intention to drive all Americans out of China. The Rev. Mr. Reid, another Presbyterian missionary to China, intimated that the Emperor of China would not be slow to execute the villany we have taught him, even bettering the instruction. Another missionary said that the law meant "a black day for American missionaries and American commerce."

It is eminently fitting that this Presbyterian outburst should be directed against a bill which a Presbyterian Administration was responsible for passing. An elder of the Presbyterian Church by a stroke of his pen, a year ago, could have prevented the Exclusion Act from becoming a law, and so have prevented the danger, which now seems imminent, that 600 missionaries may be expelled from China, to their own immediate peril and to the eternal peril of the Chinese whose souls they are trying to save. Two other Presbyterian elders sat in Mr. Harrison's Cabinet; and both, as far as the public knows, consented to this law which Presbyterians are now branding as infamous and disastrous. Not long afterwards another Presbyterian elder became a member of the Cabinet, giving new point to the complacent remark often heard in denominational circles: "This is a thoroughly Presbyterian Administration."

In Mr. Harrison's own case there was the added humiliation of a retreat from an earlier attitude of humanity and decency toward the Chinese. As Senator from Indiana he had stood up for the Chinese not only as so many "souls" to save in a conveniently distant land, but as human beings who had rights under the laws and treaties and Constitution of the country. But such sentiments would never do for a Presidential candidate in a close contest, and accordingly he altered them in 1888, suddenly professing in his letter of acceptance a great devotion to "the home" and "the family," which the Chinese were in some unexplained way breaking down, and saying that the question of Chinese immigration had "passed entirely beyond the stage of argument." He even went further, to catch the hoodlum vote, and suggested "further legislation," which he said would meet with his approval. Such further legislation came duly to hand in the Geary law of May 5, 1892. President Harrison was fully advised by missionary societies of their strong opposition to this bill, and their reasons for it, but he signed it before the ink on it was dry. What else could he do, with the National Republican Convention only a month away?

We do not recall these facts for the purpose of making out Mr. Harrison, and his fellow-elders in the Cabinet, sinners above all Presbyterians, nor do we assert that another President in his place would have

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done better. But it is well to fix ultimate responsibility, and to show indignant Presbyterians where they ought to strike home. They had a man after their own heart in the Presidency, and he, with his eyes open, signed a law which his veto would have killed and which they now say is endangering the lives of hundreds of Americans and imperilling the souls of millions of Chinamen. They ought to speak out with the directness and offensive personality of Nathan the prophet, calling upon the elder from Indianapolis to explain his conduct, and asking him what he thinks now of the profit of gaining the California vote (which he didn't get after all) and losing not only his election but the respect of his own denomination. It would seem that he still stands by the demagogism which led him to sign the Geary Act in such hot haste a year ago. At any rate, the Indianapolis *Journal*, which has long been known as his personal organ, is full of denunciation for the Cleveland Administration because it delayed enforcement of the anti-Chinese act until the Supreme Court had passed upon its constitutionality, and full of demands that it shall carry it into effect in all its rigor, now that it has been declared valid. Outside the sand lots of San Francisco we have not found anywhere in the country such an earnest desire for the enforcement of the law as animates Mr. Harrison's organ. Apparently it will consider Mr. Cleveland derelict if he does not proceed to run up a bill of several million dollars without authority of law for the deportation of the hundred thousand Chinese who would have to be sent home.

Now that it is too late, the various churches are very indignant and emphatic against the Geary Law. The Methodists announce that they have decided to make a "vigorous fight" against it. If they had fought with only a little vigor a year ago, and brought the great political power of their denomination to bear on Congress and Executive, they could have beaten the Exclusion Act easily. The General Association of Congregational Churches of Massachusetts adopted resolutions at Boston on Thursday in which they "beg the Chinese to suspend judgment upon Christian ethics until the Christian people of the land have asserted themselves." What were the Christian people of the land doing when the Geary Law was pending? They were moving heaven and earth to avert the judgments of the Almighty on a nation that would open a World's Fair on Sunday. They were asserting, as a distinguished Congregational clergyman has said, that it was a great boon to a Christian nation to have a President who began the day with family prayers in the White House, no matter whether he rose from his knees to sign or veto a bill that outraged religion and humanity alike. This was the real display of "Christian ethics" upon which the Chinese are now asked to suspend judgment. Perhaps they will consent to do so, though the Founder of the Christian religion did not feel compelled to in his day, and had some particularly unpleasant things to say of the pious and respectable churchgoers of his time who made long prayers for a pretence, and were especially sound on the Sabbath question, but cared nothing about justice and mercy.

CHRISTIAN SOCIALISM.

THE Rev. Washington Gladden is a clergyman who apparently exerts a wide influence, and who is unquestionably animated by benevolent intentions. In a recent book upon 'Property and Industry under the Christian Law,' while he shows a disposition to neglect the lessons of the past, and seems inadequately equipped in philosophy and in economics, he expresses with more clearness than is usual in such writing the theory upon which the modern identification of Christianity with Socialism proceeds. Not that Mr. Gladden calls himself a Socialist. He is unwilling to accept the socialistic creed in all its length and breadth. He thinks that wages are too low and profits too high, but he ventures the opinion that capital is entitled to some "share in the product," although its present share is too large. Moreover, he contends that "the holy" may rightly possess property, urging that "God is the absolute owner of the material universe," and that the holy, as his heirs, are entitled to possess it. To the thorough-going Socialist there may seem to be something of clerical casuistry in this argument, and he will certainly fume and rage at the declaration that property is justified when its possessors employ it to refine and ennoble their tastes and attain the perfection of their natures. But even these extremists will admit that Mr. Gladden is in a way to gain light. He wants our governments to extend their functions. They must put a stop to Sunday work and prevent people from working too hard on other days. They must inspect labor in general. They must introduce "compulsory arbitration." They must control telegraphs, railways, etc. They must limit the ownership of land and forbid the accumulation of great fortunes. This may not be the complete socialistic programme, but it has the genuine ring. The wound it would inflict upon the body politic might not be so deep as a well nor so wide as a church-door, but it would be enough.

The theory upon which support of this political revolution is made the duty of Christians is as follows: Christianity is concerned, it is true, with the conversion of men, but it must also undertake the conversion of the State. "We are called to convert men, and we are called at the same time and with equal authority to furnish them a Christian society to live in after they are converted. . . . The kingdoms of this world are to become the kingdoms of our Lord. . . . It is the business of the State to declare and maintain upon the earth the righteousness of God." Institutions, laws, governments, are to be Christianized; and when the Christian majority gets control of the Government, many sorrows shall be to the ungodly. The righteous have "got into their heads" Christ's notion of what it means to rule, and they will "find some better thing to do than simply to keep the wicked from breaking into their houses and robbing their hen-roosts. When the King of us all does come to his own, you will discover that he is something more than a policeman." In short, it is our Christian duty to force other people to be good according to our notions of goodness, and Christians ought to get possession of and operate the institution of civil government in order to carry out this ideal.

The attempt to apply this theory, that it is the business of our legislators to declare, and of our administrative officers to maintain, "the righteousness of God," seems to have always the same result. The experiment was never tried under more favorable circumstances than by the Puritans of Massachusetts Bay. They were in every way homogeneous and they were free from outside interference. But in a short time it was discovered that when "holiness" was made necessary to the possession of political power, it was also necessary to have some external test of holiness, and that hypocrites could pass any external test, while many upright men would refuse to make the attempt. An odious and tyrannical spirit manifested itself in the ruling class under the usual *ad majorem Dei gloriam* pretence, while an angry spirit of rebellion against the assumptions of special divine guidance and exclusive righteousness pervaded the society. The experiment has great interest for posterity; but it was not a pleasant episode, and as an experiment in government in the name of holiness it was a failure. It was impossible to distinguish the elect; and even the elect seemed—if that were possible—to be sometimes deceived.

The error of the Christian Socialists arises, as the errors of religious despotisms have generally arisen, chiefly from two causes. On the one hand, they fall into the mistake of the mediæval realists, and attribute existence to general ideas in the same sense as they attribute it to particulars. The society, the nation, the Government, the institutions—all these abstract terms are to them representative of realities having as independent an existence as men and women. The common use of language has much to do with this psychological blunder. We constantly speak in a figurative sense of the nation as animated by the emotions of a man, but no careful thinker will permit himself to reason in this way any more than deliberately to attribute sex to a war-vessel. Yet we know how great an influence the realistic philosophy exerted both on politics and religion in the middle ages, especially, as Mr. Bryce has shown, in the

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conception of the Holy Roman Empire; and it does not appear probable that it will ever lose its plausibility to minds of a certain degree of culture. Mr. Gladden's example is notable chiefly on account of the naïf frankness of his declaration that it is a Christian duty to "convert" institutions as well as souls.

The attribution of Christianity, or moral quality, to an institution illustrates the second cause of error above referred to. An institution is nothing but an habitual mode of action, and to call it righteous is simply to apply a term belonging properly only to the heart or the will to external manifestations. In other words, every attempt to prescribe modes of action as essentially "Christian" is an attempt to substitute a code of external observances for a religion of the heart—the very evil against which Jesus uttered his most terrible denunciations. Here again, we fear, it must be said that this distinction passes the understanding of the ordinary clergyman, for certainly the history of the Church is largely made up of the struggles of the religious emotion against being stifled with formalism. Kant's dictum that there is nothing good but a good will, is not a proposition altogether easy of acceptance.

And in the second place this socialistic preaching is to be deplored because it weakens the already relaxed hold of the clergy upon educated men. The Church, of course, no longer attracts the ablest of our college graduates as of old, but it is quite possible for men of moderate intellectual gifts to influence their hearers if they will follow the methods and precepts of their Leader. But if they hope to impress thoughtful men by holding forth this or that nostrum as the essence of Christianity—especially when it is a nostrum, like Socialism, discredited by all experience, present as well as past—they will be disappointed. The proportion of educated men who refuse altogether to listen to sermons is considerable, and the average attendance of such men at church seems to be diminishing. Many still attend the established services from motives of decorum; but if their pastors could look through the grave and respectful expressions that mask their thoughts, and see the emotions of pity for intellectual feebleness and contempt for ignorance which are held in restraint, they might learn that their only strength lies in the possession and the proclamation of humility and charity.

THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

LONDON, May 1, 1893.

THE most notable feature in connection with the Royal Academy this year is the unanimity with which the critics have condemned it. Sir Frederick Leighton, at the annual banquet, might declare it his opinion that not the most carping critic could challenge the comprehensive catholicity of the new exhibition. But the actual fact is that the failure of the Academy to represent contemporary art, or, for that matter, British art, adequately has never before been so universally admitted. Within the last few years in London a new generation of writers on art has sprung up—men who have technical knowledge of their subject as well as the ability to make a good living out of it; who see no reason why a stupid convention should keep them from writing upon their own profession any more than it would a physician or a lawyer from writing upon his; who have no sentimental or ethical or religious fad to foist upon the public; who are never toadies, and whose by no means least qualifications are honesty of purpose and fearlessness of speech. Their influence has already made itself felt upon the public, who begin to doubt the Academy as a standard of art; in the auction-rooms, where many Academicians' pictures are decreasing in value; even in the Academical ranks, where the "new criticism," as newspaper slang has dubbed it, is creating something like a panic.

The Academy banquet, an occasion for the interchange of empty compliments, could not pass off this year without references to unfriendly critics. The references, it is true, excited laughter, but that they were made at all shows the importance attached to the new conditions of criticism which the Academy pretends to despise. Lord Herschel, in his speech, by way of witticism, gave his idea of the marks of the "real artist" according to certain critics whom he wished to ridicule. But in his light jest, could he but have realized it, was a serious enough truth; for one mark he found so funny was that the pictures of the "real artist" should never appear on the walls of the Academy. That they should not is, indeed, an absurdity; but that they do not, save with rare exceptions, is unfortunately too true. In Burlington House, you may find a Leighton, a Dicksee, a Fildes, but you look in vain for a Whistler. You may see on the line the puerile fancies of Sants and Friths and Stones, the pretentious vulgarities of candidates for academical honors, like Solomon and Hacker. But for the work of the more brilliant younger Englishmen you must go to the New English Art Club; of the younger Scotchmen, to the Grafton Gallery; of men with less artistic excellence, perhaps, but with undoubted individuality, like Mr. Burne-Jones, to the New Gallery. (In this connection, I might just mention, by way of reminder, that the latter has in the end been forced to throw up his associateship, evidently in sheer disgust with the Academical policy.) When a good picture does stray into the Academy, ten chances to one it is skied. Once a man can write R.A. or A.R.A. after his name, he seems to consider it part of his duty to affect entire indifference to all that goes on outside of Burlington House, or else to remain in complete ignorance of all but Academical art. The result is, that, while nominally the Academy is the most important exhibition of the year, actually it is the least noteworthy.

It is no exaggeration to say, that in the show just opened there are but two canvases calling for special mention, but two that are genuinely distinguished. A small minority among the 1,800-odd contributions may have merit, but only Mr. Sargent's portrait of "Lady Agnew" and Mr. George Clausen's "Evening Song" assert themselves with positive distinction. Mr. Sargent has been more clever, more brilliant, more daring; but never has he been so successful in recording the beauty as well as the character of a face, never so refined in his color scheme, a lovely harmony of white and delicate lilac and silvery blue. The handling lacks nothing of his accustomed breadth and vigor, but there is a certain refinement, a repose, about the portrait as a decorative whole not quite so usual in his work. Indeed, it might be hard to understand why Mr. Sargent, who, in less masterly moods, has been hung on high, should now appear on the line, were it not for the name of his sitter—a name borne by a Bond Street shop-keeper all-powerful among Academicians, who chiefly prize the commercial value of art. Mr. Clausen, in his canvas, shows a strong, careful study of light: a little girl lies in the harvest field in the hot rays of the setting sun. In the figure is a suggestion of Bastien-Lepage, his first master; in the landscape, of Monet, his second; subtle and lovely in passages, in others it is crude and spotty. Even the problem of light is but partially worked out, different portions of the landscape apparently having been studied at different hours of the day. Indeed, one has one's suspicions that at the Champ de Mars, and, it may be, at the New English Art Club or the Grafton Gallery, the picture would seem less distinguished. But here its vitality and its intelligent observation of nature, though within limits, make it a masterpiece amid so much that is labored and perfunctory.

To point to other work that strikes one as out of place in an Academy of Mediocrity is to turn to Mr. J. M'Clure Hamilton's small portrait of Mr. Onslow Ford in his studio, strong in character, accomplished in drawing, and interesting, if a trifle harsh, in its study of whites; to Mr. Bridgman's "Waiting for the Tide," a little landscape with unsatisfactory figures and tedious detail in the foreground, but with a delightful quality in the misty distance, which is far more effectively rendered than anything of Mr. Bridgman's I have yet seen; and to Mr. John N. Barlow's "Morning after Rain," a large stretch of level country under a fine luminous sky; and it is well to note that these three exceptions are the work of American painters.

Of the rest it would be useless to speak. If I did, it would be but to repeat platitudes, now become trite, about Sir Frederick Leighton's pseudo-classicism and Mr. Alma-Tadema's skilful, if mechanical, marbles; about Sir John Millais's falling away from his early achievements in the "Ophelia" and the "Huguenot Lovers," and Mr. Herkomer's carelessly observed and hastily executed portraits; it would be but to point out that Mr. Dicksee's large "Funeral of a Viking" is, by rights, the picture of the year, because of the size of the canvas and the obviousness of the story; that Mr. Orchardson threatens to succumb to Academical influence; that Mr. David Murray promises some day to paint really good landscapes when he is not so eager to produce the exhibition "machine"; that Mr. Stanhope-Forbes is resigning himself to the inevitable, and proving, by the indifference of his work, a worthy Associate. It would be but to explain that the Newlyn men are becoming more photographic in methods and results; that, in a word, despite a rare exception here and there—a not particularly good Albert Moore and one or two not very remarkable examples of the younger Scotch painters—the collection is representative of all that is least accomplished and most unintelligent in British art to-day.

Nor is the sculpture more stimulating than the paintings, though the Academy is strongest in its sculptors. Mr. Gilbert sends nothing to redeem the prevailing commonplace. Mr. Onslow Ford's contributions are comparatively unimportant. Mr. George Frampton, one of the younger sculptors of note still outside the Academy, is most to the fore. It is encouraging

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to find that he has been able—probably has been commissioned—to cast into bronze his group of last year's exhibition, "The Children of the Wolf," which has the merit of vigor and vitality in the modelling, even if, in its suggestion of Rodin, its originality is to be questioned. As yet Mr. Frampton seems too timid to be himself. Not only Rodin, but Donatello, on the one hand, and Khnopff and all the Symbolists on the other, influence him but too obviously. However, to compare him to Mr. Birch and Mr. Thorneycroft and other members of the Academy is to recognize at once his greater ability, even if in his zeal as a student he hitherto has repressed his own individuality. An occasional relief from exhibitors whose reputation is still to make may show promise, but beyond this there is nothing but vapid feebleness or else brazen pretension, as in Gérôme's "Bellona," which, with its swirling draperies, typical of everything that sculpture ought not to be, and the aggressive variety of its constructive materials, is more conspicuous here than it was in last spring's Champs-Élysées Salon. The water-colors, that peculiarly British art, reach the lowest depth of incompetency. The Black-and-White Room is striking for nothing but the absence of all the foremost illustrators of the day, save Mr. Small and Mr. Du Maurier. Two or three good etchings and mezzotints, and a few book-plates, are lost in a wilderness of indifferent prints and wood-engravings and worse drawings.

To persevere in holding exhibitions that decrease in artistic interest and value with every spring is a mistaken policy. The Academy may not even have felt the organized movement set on foot against it a few years ago, for this was led by artists without strong enough personality to move either Academicians or outsiders. But the new opposition, though not organized, is far more powerful. The work of Academicians is being criticised as it has never been hitherto; and the numerous other shows now held in London are forcing upon even the average visitor to galleries a realization of the Academy's limited scope and narrow ambitions. That a body of artists, practically but a private society, should be accorded royal and public privileges is being widely commented upon. The appropriation of the largest sums by the Trustees of the Chantry Fund, who are members of the Academy, to the purchase of their own and their fellow-members' pictures, has not passed unnoted. For their own sake, at least, if more disinterested motives have no weight with them, Academicians would do well really to give to their annual show the comprehensive catholicity of which they make so complacent, but baseless, a boast. N. N.

IN THE BALEARIC ISLES.—II.

PALMA, April 6, 1893.

WHEN we came to Palma, in February, the almond was the only fruit tree in bloom. Now the peach, pear, cherry, apple, and quince have gladdened the orchards, and the fig tree is putting forth its leaves like tiny hands holding fruit and mysteriously hidden blossom in their grasp. The hillsides are starred with asphodel, the purple and gold of the wild hyacinth and marigold make glorious the waste places, while lavender, rosemary, and mountain mint fill the air with aromatic fragrance. The air itself is of a peculiarly grateful quality; soft, yet invigorating, its balmy freshness invites to outdoor life. Day after day the deep blue of the sky is mirrored in the sea; and as night follows night of starry beauty, the happy circumstance that fixed upon the watchman the title of "el sereno" comes pleasantly home to us as we hear his melodious chant, giving praise to God and proclaiming the hour and the state of the weather: "A-la-ba-do se-a Di-os; las do-ce de la no-che; se-re-no."

Although there has been no rain worth mentioning since Christmas, and grave fears are entertained that orchards and vineyards will suffer, to superficial observation there is no evidence of drought save the dust along the highways, for the young leaves on the fruit-trees, the luxuriant roses, geraniums, and heliotropes in the gardens, and the distant wheat fields, wear that vivid color which frequent moisture alone gives. Set in the midst of the sea as these islands are, the atmosphere must be charged with an imperceptible moisture which gives brilliancy to vegetation and helps to maintain its vitality in the absence of rain. The greatest rainfall is usually at the period of the vernal and autumnal equinoxes. Then the dry beds of the rivers are filled with a seething mass of water rushing tumultuously to the sea. It is recorded that the Riera, which empties at Palma, has often ravaged the city like a foe; but ordinarily these temporary torrents have been sufficient only to fill the irrigating canals and to supply the various needs of the city, and of late years the desolating axe, in laying waste the forests, has so influenced the rainfall that the annual supply is far less than necessity requires.

The temperature of Mallorca is remarkably even; the surrounding water equalizes both heat and cold so that extremes are rare, the mercury seldom falling to freezing point. Even in February we found the out-door air always agreeable, a light wrap being sufficient when not exercising; but in these stone houses, with their tiled floors, a fire on the hearth at nightfall is indispensable to the comfort of the unacclimated; braziers being inadequate, in spite of their magnificence.

In a city so limited in area as Palma, crowded with sixty thousand souls, where the cock's shrill clarion is heard from the third or fourth story across the way, and sheepskins drying in upper galleries give evidence of malodorous occupations, desirable apartments are not to be had for the asking, so we turned our faces in quest of a home towards the suburb of El Terreno, which had smiled a welcome on us as we entered the bay. This lovely hill slope, against whose rocky base the sea gently surges, is the summer resort of the well-to-do Palmesans. The houses, built of sandstone, washed with soft tints, are of characteristic architecture, delightfully irregular, with broad porches and low, flat roofs enclosed to form a balcony. They are set in terraced gardens of perennial bloom, surrounded by high walls over which the prickly cactus lifts forbidding arms. In these secluded gardens the rich bloom of the pomegranate mingles with the exquisite green of the fig tree, which is trained into a wide-spreading arbor capable of sheltering families of patriarchal magnitude. Pieces of white paper tied to the balustrades indicate by their position, at the end or in the middle, that furnished or unfurnished apartments are to let. These directed our footsteps; and, as the result of negotiations conducted with that fervid rhetoric and expressive gesticulation so dear to the Southern nature, we are established, with a balcony all our own, from which we command a view of sea, city, and mountains of as rare a loveliness as it is enduring. And when, as the shadows lengthen, the goats come up to be milked, with the little kids gambolling beside them, and figures sharply defined against the evening sky walk upon the housetops, and Phyllis and Corydon fling back to each other their antiphonal chant, we could fancy ourselves living in pastoral times were it not impossible to conceive of poet celebrating song so shrill, and were not the passing tramcar an irreconcilable object in such surroundings.

But on the height above us, under the shadow of the ancient castle of Bellver, days of romance and of chivalry seem near. Even 600 years of varied fortune have not destroyed the beauty of this structure, supposed to have been destined as a dwelling-place for the Mallorcan kings. Tradition tells of song and dance and brilliant gallantry that went on within its walls, but history deals with it only as a fortress, and records the troublous times of wars, of sieges, of murders, and of treasons. The walls are circular, interrupted by towers, and rise from a deep moat. The massive "tower of the oath of fealty," isolated from the walls, is connected with them by a graceful bridge high above the moat. Under this tower are the subterranean dungeons which have hidden shining talents and noble virtues, for men famous in Spanish history have been sadly associated with Bellver. A memorial stone over the spot where he was shot, by order of Ferdinand VII., pays tribute to the virtues of Lieut.-Gen. Lacy, who died "a victim to his love of liberty." In the room where Jovellanos, a littérateur of more than Spanish fame, spent six years of his life, the Sociedad Económica Mallorquina has placed a commemorative tablet. The spacious, circular courtyard surrounded by two galleries with groined roofs and graceful arches is of exceptional beauty. On looking into the great well in the middle of this "patio" a charming surprise greeted us in the form of a luxuriant mass of maidenhair fern covering the well-worn stones some distance down with its glistening fronds. The exuberant life of nature in this southern latitude makes one forget the vicissitudes of time. Through the openings of pines, carobs, and wild olives, that keep their footing on the steep hillside, one sees the rich valleys, carpeted with green and teeming with orchards and vineyards, the gay wild-flowers rejoicing everywhere, the sapphire sky and sea—all steeped in a golden atmosphere that gives one a strange lightness of spirit in harmony with this youthfulness of nature.

The realistic character of the ceremonies of Holy Week, just passed, reminded us that we are in a country said to be even more Catholic than Catholic Spain. On the Thursday preceding Easter a procession of figures in old-time penitents' garb (one walking barefoot as a real penitent), priests, and soldiers clad in mail, marched through the streets with lighted torches and solemn music, bearing aloft a crucifix (supposed to possess miraculous virtues), a crown of thorns, a scourge, a sponge dipped in vinegar—every emblem that could make real the event they celebrated. On Good Friday the flags on the castle and the shipping in the harbor and throughout the city were at half-mast, while the streets wore a deserted look. The next morning, at a signal from the guns on the ramparts, the flags were hoisted, bells rung out, and preparations were made for a grand *fiesta*, to close with a bull-fight. The ancient custom of sacrificing a lamb was generally observed, and women and children were seen dragging their unwilling victims to the shambles. Bands of singers, with guitars and castanets, went about throughout the day and night, making noisy joy over the resurrection. On Easter Sunday a brilliant ceremony took place

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in the cathedral. Priests in rich white vestments, representatives of the noble families of Palma in evening dress, and altar boys with lighted candles, made the circuit of the vast building, bearing the figure of the victorious Christ. Through a long lane of kneeling worshippers the procession advanced until the figure of Mary was met, borne from the opposite direction. After making obeisance to the risen Lord, she turned and led the way to the high altar.

The gloom of the great cathedral lends itself well to these observances, even its very beauty and impressiveness helping to keep alive that spirit of superstition which seeks to wall in the mental horizon. Any effort towards greater freedom in religious matters is met here with fierce opposition. A pastoral letter was read in all the churches of the island, a few weeks since, charging upon Protestantism all the evils, material and social, of modern life. This onslaught received its impetus from a movement on the part of a handful of Protestants to build a small chapel in one of the outlying villages. This religious bigotry helps, too, to prevent the furtherance of much-needed sanitary reforms, ignoring natural causes and urging the people to spend their energies on religious exercises. Truly the spirit of the twentieth century must knock loudly to be heard in this far-away isle. S. G.

Correspondence.

SUNDAY OPENING OF THE WORLD'S FAIR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is announced that the United States are about to apply for an injunction to prevent the opening of the Columbian Exposition on Sundays. The equity court will no doubt grant a temporary injunction or restraining order till its decision be made. Whatever the decision may be, it will no doubt be appealed from by one party or the other. If it should be in favor of the United States and a continuing injunction be granted, the Exposition, under the established practice in equity courts in cases similar to this, would be entitled to a suspension of it on filing a sufficient bond to the United States for the repayment of the moneys advanced in the event of its appeal not being sustained. If, on the other hand, the court should refuse the continuing injunction, it would probably be on condition of the filing by the Exposition of just such a bond—in order that, whatever may be the decision in the court of last resort, the rights of the United States may be protected.

Francis J. Lippitt.

Washington, May 21, 1893.

LA CHINE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have but little to say in regard to your friendly review of my Reminiscences. They contain errors, probably from the critic's point of view inexcusable, yet something is due to the negligence of advancing years, and I hope that the errors, with one or two exceptions, are not of sufficient consequence to materially detract from such value as the book might otherwise possess.

There is one statement which is important—it is the following:

"Some of La Salle's men, refusing to follow him into the far West, returned to La Chine, and the place then received its name in derision of the young adventurer's dream of a westward passage to China," etc. [Parkman's 'La Salle'], (p. 21). Thus Mr. Chittenden's story is baseless in fact, and he also falls into an anachronism, for La Salle's birth-year, 1643, was more than a century after Cartier's voyage."

On the authority of Mr. Parkman, quoting the Abbé Faillon, this is your comment upon my statement that the name La Chine was given to the Rapids upon Cartier's second voyage [1535]. Now, whether my statement is baseless or not, that of Mr. Parkman cannot possibly be true. La Salle had resided at La Chine, making voyages to Lake Frontenac or Ontario, for nearly ten years before he started on his great Western expedition. Hennepin, who was a member of the great Western expedition of 1678, says, in his first edition, of La Salle, that in 1669 "il achepte une habitation dans l'île de Monréal à l'endroit appellé La Chine, où l'on s'embarque pour remonter plus haut le long de la grande rivière Saint-Laurent." Thus La Chine had its name nearly ten years before La Salle's great Western exploration.

La Salle was a popular leader. If any of his party ever mutinied and left him, it is very singular that neither Hennepin, Joutel, nor Tonti, who were members and have each written an account of his expedition, makes any mention of it. His first trouble with his men appears to have occurred on the prairies of Texas many years afterwards, where he was assassinated [in 1687]; nor do I believe that when, for more than fifty years after Champlain's first voyage in 1609, every considerable natural object in Canada, as far west as Lake Huron, had received a name, these rapids which obstructed the navigation of the St. Lawrence failed of baptism.

The authority for my statement was Dr. Cyrille H. O'Coté, an eminent Canadian, the associate of Papineau and the Nelsons, driven from Canada by the rebellion of 1838-9, who supported himself by giving French lessons, and I was his pupil. In lectures to his class on Canadian history, with which he was very familiar, he related this incident. My statement may not be historically accurate, but it has some authority which I think is as reliable as that upon which it is questioned.

Yours very truly, L. E. Chittenden.

New York, May 16, 1893.

[We wish Mr. Chittenden had looked into Parkman's 'La Salle,' noting not only the passage we quoted, but other references to La Chine. After such an examination he would never have written that "Mr. Parkman's statement as to the origin of the name La Chine cannot possibly be true." He would have escaped thinking, as he now does, that Parkman's statement referred to La Salle's expedition of 1678, instead of that in 1669—a chronological mistake which led Mr. Chittenden far astray. He would have seen that it was no matter if "Hennepin, Joutel, and Tonti make no mention of La Salle's men refusing to follow him into the Great West," for he would have read La Salle's own testimony that they did so refuse (Parkman, p. 23). Mr. Chittenden quotes Hennepin as saying that "La Salle, in 1669, obtained a habitation on the Island of Montreal at a place called La Chine"; but Hennepin does not state that that place began to be so called at an earlier date than Parkman's. It was not so called in 1669 by La Salle, who named it *La Seigneurie de St.-Sulpice*, the name by which it was denominated in his legal conveyances. Had Mr. Chittenden looked into Parkman's authorities he would soon have seen his own errors.

La Chine was not yet so called on July 6, 1669, when La Salle set his face westward in search of China. The words of Faillon are: "Ils partirent de Ville-Marie [Montreal], allèrent au Saut Saint-Louis [now Lachine Rapids] et au fief de Saint-Sulpice *appelé ensuite la Chine*" (iii, p. 292). When La Salle had pushed on westward about 400 leagues, the fatigues were so great that, as he tells us, the twenty-three or twenty-four men whom he had led off so far deserted him all at once (*le quittèrent tous en une nuit*—Parkman, p. 23). These men were seen to arrive at the same place in Montreal Island from which they had started three or four months before. Thereupon the home-keeping folks, who before had not expected much from the adventure, gave the place by way of irony the name La Chine [China], or La petite Chine, as if La Salle's adventurers had returned from there (*donnèrent par ironie le nom de la Chine à ce lieu, comme si ses hommes en fussent revenus*—Faillon, iii., p. 297). The name La Chine, as it were China-town, was so appropriate to the abode of the prodigals returned from China that it soon supplanted Saint Sulpice, and in 1670, June 11, appeared in a public document. If Mr. Chittenden can show the name to have been used in any history of Cartier, or at earlier dates than those given above by Faillon, we will very humbly retract our criticism on his etymology of La Chine.

It has seemed the more worth while to correct Mr. C.'s misapprehension because he is by no means alone in his error. In No. 1414, reviewing 'Ulysses Up to Date,' we alluded to a similar and worse mistake, but did not correct it, only saying that it contradicted Parkman and chronology. The lively Englishman said:

"The little village of Lachine owes its name to a blunder of the French missionaries who explored the country in the 16th [17th] century. Geographical science was then in its infancy. They knew that 'the merry world was round,' and that was almost all they did know. When they came to the St. Lawrence they imagined that they had reached China from the east, and the error was not discovered until they had called the place La Chine, which name survives to bear witness to their mistake."

—Ed. Nation.]

EASY-CHAIR PHILOLOGY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: With its usual combination of superficiality and positiveness, where words are concerned, the London *Daily News* has lately ventured once more to discourse on Americanisms. From among its most recent misadventures a couple may be instanced as typical.

Admire, to signify, as of old, and in the pages of Southey, Archdeacon Farrar, and

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others, 'wonder at,' is still sometimes heard in New England, where one also occasionally hears the same verb as the equivalent of the intransitive 'like,' emphasized. In these locutions we have an archaism and what seems to be an original Americanism, respectively. But, says the *Daily News*, "*Admire* is used by Milton, and, in fact, is not uncommon, in the American sense"; and that is all. Yet only in such a phrase as, "I should *admire* to go to the Chicago Exhibition," is seen what can, with any propriety, be called "the American sense" of *admire*. And where is there anything of the kind in Milton?

Again: "It is rather the idioms, as *back of*, for 'behind' . . . that are peculiarly American." In the United States, *back of* denotes not only 'behind,' but 'back from'; and it has both these meanings in Ireland, whence they crossed the Atlantic. Nor is *back of* exclusively a modern Hibernianism. Sir William Fownes, in a letter to Dean Swift, dated Sept. 9, 1732, states, regarding a certain "very proper spot," that "it lies *back of* Aungier-street east."

As to the word *mobocracy*, the Daily *News* rules that it "ought to be *ochlocracy*"; agreeably to which style of jargon (as if "to be" and "to be replaced by" were one and the same) a Conservative would be represented as contending that, at the present crisis of English politics, "Mr. Gladstone ought to *be* Lord Salisbury." That *mobocracy* "is not particularly American," we are farther informed, though there is no disclaimer added of its American origin, which, erroneously enough, is implied by Mr. Bartlett. To *ochlocracy* there is no serious objection, certainly; but whoever is disposed to prefer its homely synonym has very respectable authority for his choice, as the subjoined quotations bear evidence:

"The *Mobocracy* has reconsidered that Matter." Arthur Murphy, *Gray's Inn Journal*, No. 95, Aug. 10, 1754. Murphy there employs the word nine times, and, in one place, expresses himself as though he supposed it to be of his own coining.

"It is a good name that a Dr. Stevens has given to our present situation (for one cannot call it a Government), a *Mobocracy*." Horace Walpole (1757), *Letters to Sir Horace Mann* (ed. 1833), vol. iii., p. 245.

"I have turned over Sidney, and Puffendorf, and fifty other writers, in the course of my little reading, and find no form of government so dangerous as a *Mobocracy*." George Colman (1762), *Prose on Several Occasions* (1787), vol. ii., p. 30.

"Mr. Wilkes . . . quarrelled with a gentleman for saying the French government was become a democracy, and asserted it was rather a *mobocracy*." Madame D'Arblay (1789), *Diary and Letters* (ed. 1842–46), vol. v., p. 76.

"French affairs still very bad. Is the report of Brunswick's success true? The *mobocracy* may thank themselves for it." Robert Southey (1792), *Letters* (1856), vol i., p. 7.

"Henceforth, if we are not much mistaken, *mobocracy* will be 'at a heavier discount' than ever." London *Times*, July 18, 1839, conclusion of a leading article.

Quotations from later writers, as Mr. Bernard Cracroft (1866), etc., are omitted.

The expressions "*Mobocratical* Principles" and "*Mobocratical* Power" are used by Arthur Murphy, where cited above. The Rev. Dr. Josiah Tucker, in his *Letter to Edmund Burke* (1775), has, on p. 14, the uncouth *mob-cratic*.

Noticeable, in this connexion, is the scope of research, not to mention other peculiarities, indicated by that unique philologist, Mr. T. L. Kington Oliphant, where he writes: "The worst compound I ever met with was [read *is*] *mob-ocracy*. I half fear to point it out, lest the penny-a-liners should seize upon it as a precious jewel." *Standard English* (1873), p. 247. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, May 9, 1893.

Notes.

D. APPLETON & Co. have nearly ready their 'Guide to Alaska and the Northwest Coast,' compiled by Miss E. R. Scidmore, and 'The Simple Adventures of a Memsahib'—housekeeping in India—by Sara Jeannette Duncan.

The 'Distaff Series' of the Messrs. Harper is a contribution to the Columbian Exhibition, the six volumes being written by women, put in type and stitched by women, and bound in a cover designed by a woman. The first two are 'The Higher Education of Women,' edited by Anna C. Brackett, and 'The Literature of Philanthropy,' edited by Frances A. Goodale. The same firm will add to its "Black and White Series" the Rev. Arthur Brooks's sketch of Phillips Brooks in the May *Harper's*, and an address on George William Curtis by John W. Chadwick.

D. C. Heath & Co. will issue in June 'An Introduction to the Study of the Dependent, Defective and Delinquent Classes,' by Prof. Charles R. Henderson of the University of Chicago.

Mr. Selden L. Whitcomb, Fellow in Literature at Columbia College, is preparing a 'Chronology of American Literature' on the model of Mr. Ryland's most useful chronological tables of English literature.

Funk & Wagnalls have issued a prospectus, with sample pages, of their 'Standard Dictionary of the English Language,' in which we remark many interesting and some useful innovations. For example, disputed pronunciations are determined by the weight of preference of an Advisory Committee of fifty-two; the names of publishers are added to some of the works from which illustrative citations are made; the etymology follows instead of preceding the definitions; there will be colored plates as well as cuts in the text, etc.

The collection of book-plates is now a recognized pastime, and there are half-a-dozen books devoted to the sport and as many dealers making a specialty of *ex-libris*. The latest development of this taste is highly comic. A Parisian dealer, M. L. Joly, noting with regret that many celebrated people of the past had no book-plates, has kindly determined to supply them. He announces a series of "Ex-libris imaginaires et supposés de personnages célèbres anciens et modernes," and he begins with the book-plates of Poe and of Brillat-Savarin—a strange conjunction. Probably we shall have in time the plate which identified the owner of the nine books of the Sibyl.

The late Enrico Narducci was cut off in the midst of his 'Catalogo completissimo dei manoscritti italiani e latini della Biblioteca Angelica di Roma,' of which only the first volume had appeared. He had also contemplated an important undertaking in the shape of a catalogue of the Quattrocentisti possessed by all the libraries in Rome.

M. Georges Pellissier, whose 'Mouvement littéraire au XIX^e^ siècle' is an authoritative book on the subject, has also collected into one volume 'Essais de littérature contemporaine,' a series of articles, some of which have already appeared in periodicals, but which are valuable enough to be reproduced (Paris: Lecène, Oudin & Cie.). They all bear upon the present century, and are all distinctly interesting. Noteworthy are those on the Shaksperian drama in France, on the present evolution in literature, on M. Ferdinand Brunetière, and on pessimism in contemporary literature.

The second of the four volumes forming the noble illustrated edition of Green's 'Short History of the English People' (Harpers) ends with the death of Elizabeth. The illustrations show no falling off in abundance, and are more interesting than those of the earlier period. Portraits, landscapes, buildings, monuments, seals, book-titles, MS. illuminations, scenes from social and industrial life and court amusements, make a delightful accompaniment to the open, handsome letterpress. Possession of the complete work will certainly be enviable.

Dr. Cunningham Geikie's 'Hours with the Bible,' originally published in 1881 and in two volumes, we believe, now appears, after a thorough overhauling, in six duodecimo volumes (James Pott & Co.). It is a minute attempt to place "the Scriptures in the light of modern knowledge," of course with the theological bias and intent. The work is sparsely illustrated.

Dodd, Mead & Co. send us the second volume (for 1892) of 'The Year-book of Science,' edited by Prof. T. G. Bonney with competent collaboration. The index is adequate for reference to the leading topics, which are indicated by bold-faced type. The Year-book is compact, making but 500 duodecimo pages.

By a fitting coincidence, the year which witnesses the death of Gen. Armstrong is also imprinted on the volume entitled 'Twenty-two Years' Work of the Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute, at Hampton, Virginia.' In these pages, to which Gen. Armstrong contributed a brief account of his beneficent foundation, he had the satisfaction of reading before he died the "Records of Negro and Indian Graduates and ex-Students." Class by class, beginning with the graduates of 1871, the history of each negro alumnus is given as faithfully as for any white college; the Indians are likewise treated in a separate section, and are specially honored with an index, though nothing could have been more interesting than the mere list of names of the negro graduates. In these survive the names of the slaveholding families of the South, either adopted by the chattels or rightfully belonging to them as flesh and blood. Of Eliza Jackson we read: "Her father, who was her master"; and if these relationships could be traced for the majority of those showing mixed blood, the revelations would furnish a startling commentary on the horrible burning alive of black men for rape at the South, and the closely related laws forbidding intermarriage. As they stand, these Records show the unending missionary work performed by the great body of students who have gone forth from Hampton Institute as teachers or as simple centres of influence on behalf of industry, thrift, chastity, honesty, self-respect, and ambition—setting, in the language of one, "the right kind of examples of true manhood and womanhood in their own people."

Among the first to reach us of the numerous progeny of works appertaining to the World's Fair at Chicago is Mr. James Rodway's 'Handbook of British Guiana,' prepared under the direction of the Columbian Exposition Literary Committee of the Royal Agricultural and Commercial Society at Georgetown. It is a neat pamphlet of some ninety pages, in excellent style, embellished with extremely interesting views of country and people. The barely accessible table-lands of the Roraima group of mountains present a wonderful spectacle; and, on the other hand, Portuguese, Chinese, East Indians, negroes, and wild Indians

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form a medley strange even to a North American eye. In all but plantation work the Chinese are able to give a good account of themselves, and "their most striking characteristic is cleanliness: . . . even the pig-styes are washed twice a day." Mr. Rodway omits nothing needful for a fair idea of the resources, industries, and commerce of the country.

Mr. Henry R. Lang contributed last year to the *Zeitschrift für romanische Philologie* an interesting assortment of Azorean folk traditions collected in New England; New Bedford being his main hunting-ground, and the island of Fayal the sole original source of the material thus gathered. No fewer than 215 quatrains of popular songs were recorded, together with formulas, prayers, proverbs, etc. Under the head of popular etymologies, Mr. Lang mentions two cases of phonetic confusion, and the hospitable phrase, "Amigos de pratos, sede mais amigos" (Friends at table, be still greater friends!), in which he sees a jocose perversion of "Amicus Plato, sed magis amica veritas."

'Sound and Music' (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.), a goodly octavo, by Prof. J. A. Zahm, is one of the best and most readable treatises on sound with which we are acquainted. It grew out of a course of lectures delivered in the Catholic University of Washington and retains the lecture form. The author attempts to give the student an exact experimental knowledge of acoustic principles, as well as a brief exposition of the subject of musical harmony. The work contains a very large number of excellent illustrations, and offers much to interest the general reader. We may refer, for a single instance, to the concluding pages of the chapter on loudness and pitch, though, in fact, there is hardly a page which to a cultured mind is devoid of interest. The treatment of the subject is based wholly upon experiment, and of necessity largely upon the work of Helmholtz and of Koenig. Here we may be permitted to remark that experimental acoustics furnishes an admirable illustration of experiment as a method of research, and one which, if only from that point of view, is well worthy of a student's attention. Father Zahm's work covers almost the whole subject of sound, and we do not exaggerate when we call it a delightful as well as most instructive treatise.

William Wood & Co. issue the fourteenth edition of Ganot's well-known popular treatise on 'Physics,' the first having been published thirty years since. Popularity is rather too frequently considered a test of merit, and this book, though in many respects good, is old-fashioned and does not give the student a view of modern physics. Yet it has done much service in schools and even in colleges, and may fairly profess to give good elementary ideas upon the subject and to encourage the study of it. We hope that in another edition the work may be completely recast and modern views and methods introduced.

Glazebrook and Shaw's 'Practical Physics' (Longmans) is one of the best text-books we now possess, and in this fourth edition has been brought up to the level of the present state of scientific teaching. We find in it a great deal which is omitted in many works with a similar object. We may mention, for instance, the sections on physical arithmetic and that on color-vision. All the chapters are good, but those on electrical subjects are particularly clear and well considered. Books of this class exert a positive influence upon the progress of science, and older teachers can hardly fail to regard with a certain envy the advantages in instruction now enjoyed by younger men beginning a scientific career.

The Austrian Commission for the exploration of the eastern Mediterranean has lately published a first series of reports in the fifty-ninth volume of the memoirs of the Vienna Academy. It contains a chapter on physical investigations by Luksch and Wolf, and on chemical studies by Naterer; both being based on observations made on the ship *Pola*, whose outfit is described by Capt. Mörth. There are numerous charts illustrating the depth of the sea, its vertical and horizontal distribution of temperature and of salinity. There is a decrease of salinity near certain coasts, as in northwestern Greece, which is explained by the occurrence of submarine springs, and a general increase of salinity up to densities of 3.90 under dry winds in the southeast, and even to 3.95 on the bottom off the African coast of Barca.

A handy contribution to the Columbian literature of the day is Mr. G. G. Hubbard's address before the National Geographic Society on the "Discoverers of America," which appeared in the Society's magazine for April and is now published separately. It is a rapid review of the cosmographic views of the ancients and of the more important voyages of the Columbian period together with those which immediately preceded it, and closes with a brief account of the principal maps and charts of that time. Reduced facsimile reproductions of five of these are given, the most interesting being an admirable copy in color of the rare map of the pilot Juan de la Cosa, dated 1500, and representing Columbus as St. Christopher bearing the Christ-child. It is more than doubtful whether this man accompanied Vespucius on his first voyage, as Mr. Hubbard asserts, while it should be remembered that the sole authority for this first voyage of 1497 is Vespucius himself.

An exceptionally valuable collection of mountain photographs, by Vittorio Sella of Italy, is now on free exhibition by the Appalachian Mountain Club in the gallery of the Boston Art Club. Sella's high mountain views rival those taken by the lamented Donkin, and embrace the Caucasus as well as the Alps. The collection, running around the sides of two large rooms, consists almost entirely of views from the loftier mountain slopes and summits—not views *of* mountains so much as views *from* mountains. They are remarkable in execution as well as in choice of subject. The panoramas are exceptionally good in matching outline and tint. Details of mountain topography are illustrated in great variety. A general overlooking view of the Unter-Aar glacier—the one on whose medial moraine Agassiz carried on his famous observations fifty years ago—includes among its minor features several examples of the advance of avalanches a third way across the glacier from the steep slope whence they descended. One of the Matterhorn views includes the Zmutt Glacier, peculiar in the great quantity of morainic covering, from which it takes its name. Two views in the region of Monte Rosa are remarkable for their cloud effects; one showing the gathering of a storm, the other a sunrise scene of great beauty. A large panorama in the Caucasus exhibits the lower valleys filled to a certain height with clouds—an atmospheric "fjording" of the mountains to perfection. Lovers of mountains should not fail to see the collection if they are near enough to reach it. As the permanent property of the Appalachian Club, it may hereafter be exhibited in other cities.

—Vol. xvii. of 'Appletons' Annual Cyclopædia,' for 1892, is naturally tinctured by the Columbian anniversary, and has long articles both on the discoverer himself and on the Chicago Exposition. The disasters of the year have their customary diary, the railroad accidents alone being summarized. The "cyclone refuge" pictured under Patents suggests another summary worth making in this catastrophic period. The list of American cities remarkable for their growth is continued in the present volume. The survey of Literature, American and foreign, is, as heretofore, little more than a barren catalogue without discrimination. The doings of Congress, the President's message, and the text of the Geary Law against the Chinese are matters convenient for record and reference. The account of the Hawaiian revolution is perhaps pardonably unhistorical. The slovenly practice is still kept up of omitting from the collected obituaries cross-references to such persons as have been honored with articles in the general alphabet—such as Curtis, Tennyson, Whitman, and Whittier. The notice of Whittier is a model of inept compilation for a cyclopædia, neither giving a compact and comprehensive sketch of the events of his life and the development of his genius, nor omitting profuse citations from his verse. The notice of Curtis is marred by partisanship which is capable of such insinuations and misstatements as the following:

"After working [in the Republican National Convention of 1884] earnestly against the nomination of Mr. Blaine, and *retaining his seat to the last with no hint of his intention*, he returned to New York and bolted the nomination, and worked against the Republican party. In 1888 he again supported Mr. Cleveland, but *his interest in politics steadily declined.*"

Useful as this publication is, it deserves far better editing, and lacks the authority of works of the same class published abroad.

—The publication of another French diary is imminent. This time it is the hitherto carefully reserved journal of Eugène Delacroix which is to appear, and there seem to be some reasons for thinking that the book may deserve a welcome. Heine's remark about women writers may easily be varied so as to apply closely to most authors of diaries: they always seem to have one eye on the page on which they write, and the other on the printed page of the future. This is not true of Delacroix. His journal is an honestly private one, written at odd times, carelessly, without order or plan, in which its author set down for his own use and amusement a record of whatever he happened to be thinking and doing. It covers more than forty years of the artist's life. At the death of Delacroix in 1863, the diary passed into the hands of his most fervent disciple, M. Pierre Andrieu, who has always refused to permit its publication. Last year M. Andrieu died, leaving a family which does not share his prejudices, and which has sent the journal to be printed by MM. Plon, Nourrit & Cie. An introduction to the volume will be supplied by M. Paul Flat.

—The *Figaro* of May 6, in its literary supplement, gives by way of *primeur* a couple of columns of fragments of this record of Delacroix's life. It appears to us that a reader who was pressed for time might pass dry-footed over the paragraphs of metaphysical and religious reflection without too great remorse, nor should we urge upon such a one undue delay over the notes upon art. But any reader will miss something who skips the personal parts. It is not, perhaps, anything very great that he will lose, yet it is often something that gives a fresh glimpse of a familiar figure, or sheds some new light on it. Delacroix tells, for in-

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stance, of a dinner at Bixio's, where he met Lamartine, Mérimée, Scribe, Meyerbeer, and others, and where all through the evening Mérimée kept pressing Lamartine about the poetry of Pushkin, which Lamartine pretended to have read, although he knew not a word of Russian and the poems had never been translated. He notes, too, Lamartine's loud, unsympathetic voice. He tells, again, of a long evening spent with Chopin, when they talked of Mme. Sand, "de cette bizarre destinée, de ce composé de qualités et de vices." This was apropos of her Memoirs. Chopin said it would be impossible for her to write them. "She has forgotten all that; she has flashes of feeling, and she forgets at once." Delacroix told him that he foresaw for her an unhappy old age. Chopin thought otherwise: "La conscience ne lui reproche rien de ce que lui reprochent ses amis." The death of Maurice might touch her deeply, or his turning out badly; nothing else would. Such trivial records used to be thought unworthy of the Muse of History in the days when the Muse of History still survived; in our time they are looked upon with more indulgence.

—A signal proof of the progress of the movement for the higher education of women in Oxford is given by the proposals just made by the Hebdomadal Council. The Council, which alone can initiate legislation, is popularly supposed to be the stronghold of conservatism in a conservative university, and it is therefore the more gratifying to find it willing to draft statutes which, if they win acceptance, may prove to mark a great step towards the formal recognition of women students as part of the academic community. The most important innovation appears to be the official sanction given to the "Association for Promoting the Education of Women," by the fact that a member of the Hebdomadal Council will henceforward sit *ex officio* on its Committee. This Association is the central organization formed from and representative of the three residence halls, and a body of so-called "home students" analogous to the non-collegiate undergraduates of the University, and especially notable because to its ranks belong a growing number of English women. The students in Oxford are registered by this Association, and receive their education under its auspices, and to such a certain favor will be extended. In their cases "the name of the hall or body in Oxford to which a candidate belongs" shall be appended to the name of the student in the examiners' lists, a privilege apparently not to be offered to the women who come from a distance to be examined by the University. Thus the residence of women students in Oxford—an all-important qualification for a degree in the case of men—will come for the first time within the official cognizance of the university. All the final honor examinations are to be thrown open to women—those to which the new statute applies being theology, Oriental studies, and music; and the names of the successful candidates are to be published in the official calendar. If the statutes pass through the various stages of university legislature, the friends of women's education may well congratulate themselves. The concessions, if not so striking as those recently granted by the Scotch universities, may well be counted among the achievements of the year.

—The Dante exhibition, held April 10–19, at University Hall, Gordon Square, was not the first, but was certainly the most successful, effort of the kind that has been made in London. The circumstance that 1,200 people came to it and paid a small admission fee speaks volumes for the reviving interest in literature which is so marked a symptom of the times in England. This revival of Dante studies goes hand in hand with the movement for popular instruction in the rudiments of Greek, and is simultaneous with a renewed interest in the study of Goethe. Leading features in the exhibition were casts from Greek gems and reproductions of Italian and other pictures bearing upon topics in Dante's writings. The recent special study of early mediæval universities made it possible to select from the books generally read in the Italian universities in Dante's time the text-books probably used by the poet in his elementary studies. These were grouped under the *Trivium* and the *Quadrivium*. After the books of the seven arts came those of the three philosophies, physics and metaphysics, ethics, and theology. To these books were added various diagrams and charts bearing upon contemporary history; and finally the subject of astronomy, so baffling to the unassisted reader of Dante, was most effectively dealt with. The Ptolemaic system cannot be made instantly apprehensible, but the Warden of University Hall is doubtless right in saying that it is a mistake to suppose that the difficulty experienced in understanding Dante's astronomy arises from the errors of his system. The diagrams and models which he exhibited certainly suggest that the second and third books of the 'Convito' and the fourth canto of the 'Purgatory' are not beyond the comprehension of a fairly determined average mind. There were interesting early editions, and commentaries of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Botticelli's, Stradano's, and Blake's illustrations were also exhibited, together with pictures by Rossetti and Sir Frederick Leighton, and copies after Watts and Burne-Jones. There were, besides, portfolios of sketches and photographs reproducing the poet's haunts in Italy.

GEN. W. F. SMITH'S REPLY TO BUTLER'S BOOK.

From Chattanooga to Petersburg under Generals Grant and Butler: A Contribution to the History of the War, and a Personal Vindication. By William Farrar Smith, Bvt. Major-General U. S. A., and late Major-General of Volunteers. With maps and plans. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 12mo, pp. viii, 201.

EVERYBODY who read 'Butler's Book' knows that whatever spiciness it had was mainly due to its personalities. Its substance was made up of a series of attacks upon the reputation of many of the most prominent men of the war period in civil and in military life. The aspersions were sometimes direct and sometimes indirect. The weapons were sometimes insinuation, but more often open vilification. The attack failed because it was so scattering. As everybody was assaulted, nobody was hurt. Lampooning, however, is irritating to the victim, though the real damage may be small, and it was inevitable that some of those who had been misrepresented should expose their assailant.

Gen. W. F. Smith was one of those of whom Butler wrote with a pen dipped in gall. He could have ignored the "nice derangement of epitaphs" which rivalled Mrs. Malaprop's, but he was charged with falsifying the military history of the country. This gave him the occasion to write not merely a reply to Gen. Butler, but a personal account of his part in some most interesting episodes in the war of the great rebellion. The official publication of the records has only now reached the campaigns of 1864, and they were essential to Gen. Smith's vindication. In spite, therefore, of his most earnest wish to put his reply before the public promptly, he was delayed so that Butler's sudden death happened after this volume was put in type, but before it was published. In a prefatory note these facts are stated in explanation of the appearance of the book at this time, but there was hardly need of even a word of apology.

Gen. Smith's task was a double one. He had not only to vindicate his personal truthfulness and his military character, but he was forced to explain how it was that Gen. Grant, who had expressed the highest opinion of his military abilities, and had not only urged his promotion, but had indicated him as a fit man for the very highest commands, should have relieved him from duty and sent him to the rear. Not only was this done, but it was done just as an order had been issued, at Grant's request, removing Butler from field duty and assigning Smith as his successor, so that it was a curious and apparently inexplicable reversal of Grant's own purposes and choice of subordinates. If Butler's accusations were well founded, Smith was justly suffering the dramatic fate of Haman. If they were baseless, a curious problem was offered by Grant's sudden summersault in a matter of military discipline and judgment in which he was supposed to be peculiarly clear and peculiarly steady of purpose.

Gen. Smith was thus obliged, if he would make his vindication complete, to offer his explanation of Grant's sudden change from what seemed rooted distrust of Butler as a soldier to such confidence in him as to make him discard the very man he had himself selected for the leadership of the Army of the James in the field. A private letter which Smith had written to Senator Foote of Vermont in the first exasperation of disappointment had been published without his knowledge, and was used by Butler, as well as by others, as proof of a covert enmity to Grant, the discovery of which might be supposed to be a natural cause of his downfall. However strong might have been his inclination to be silent as to his relations to Gen. Grant, he might well feel that no choice was left him, and a frank and open discussion of the circumstances was the only manly course. The manner in which Gen. Smith has carried out this purpose leaves little to criticise. He is dignified and self-respecting in tone and clear in style. If his detractor is put in an unenviable plight, it is by the facts that are calmly arrayed and not by abusive epithets.

As the gist of his controversy with Butler is found in the order of the War Department dated July 7, 1864, by which Butler was relieved of command in the field and Smith substituted in his place, the latter has begun his statement of facts by showing the service he had with General Grant at Chattanooga in the fall and winter of 1863, and its effect upon his relations with the Lieutenant-General. As to the high merit of this service there can be no question. He was the Chief Engineer of the Army of the Cumberland, and to relieve the starvation of the troops cooped up in Chattanooga he planned the successful operation by which a foothold was gained on the south side of the Tennessee at Brown's Ferry. The commanding hills west of Lookout Valley were strongly occupied, a pontoon bridge was laid, the whole of Hooker's corps was put over, and the easy route for supplies by way of Bridgeport was

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opened. This made possible the subsistence of the army enlarged by the reinforcements which Sherman and Hooker brought to its relief, and prepared for the aggressive movement upon Missionary Ridge which resulted so victoriously. Grant was so deeply impressed by the intellectual grasp of the problem Smith had shown, and by his practical skill and vigor as a soldier in carrying out his plan, that he made him Chief Engineer of the Military Division of the Mississippi, and specially requested that he be put first on the list for promotion to the rank of major-general.

Smith was taken East with Grant in the spring of 1864, his promotion was secured, and he was assigned to the Eighteenth Army Corps in Butler's Army of the James. Everything points to a purpose on Grant's part that Gen. Smith should command in the field all the troops of Butler's department that should be assembled. This purpose was thwarted by Butler, and on July 1 Grant asked to have Butler transferred to some administrative command at the rear. The correspondence resulted in the order of July 7, above mentioned, but Smith was suffering from illness, and was given a leave of absence for ten days from July 9. Butler went to Grant's quarters at City Point the same day, with the result that the order was never promulgated, and on Smith's return to duty it was he that was relieved and sent to the rear. The ostensible reason seems to have been a mere pretext, and the question bluntly put is, By what influences did Butler make Grant displace the man in whom he had confidence as a commander, and reinstate one in whom, neither then nor at any subsequent period (as events proved), did he recognize the ability to command troops in the field? Grant was known to be inflexible, before that time, in throwing aside subordinates in whom he lost confidence, and in sticking to those whom he believed to be able to serve him well. Here was a new departure, extraordinary and striking. His military habits and instincts were abandoned, and, as Gen. Smith intimates, he had his first experience in listening to political motives urged by a shrewd politician. How he could be led when he abandoned ground on which he was strong, for that where his reputation was the sport of self-seeking tricksters, the country afterwards learned only too well.

The impending Presidential election, the probability that Butler would go into opposition if displaced, and might even be the Democratic candidate, threats to disclose his knowledge of some lapses from Grant's rule of rigid abstemiousness, intimations of other means of affecting the General's popularity and the security of his position at the head of the army, exaggerated pictures of the popular discontent with the campaign and horror at its slaughter —these are the Mephistophelian arguments which Gen. Smith indicates as having been potent with Grant, backed as they would be by Butler's audacious boasts of his personal power for good or ill, of the value of his political friendship and the danger of his enmity. Part of this is conjectural, but there is enough evidence offered to give much probability to this solution of the enigma, though there is still something puzzling in Grant's relations to Butler from this time to the end of his life.

Gen. Butler's military reputation has been the subject of a good deal of debate for which there would have been comparatively little room if proper discrimination were made between the business or administrative duties of a general officer and the leadership of a real soldier in the field. Nobody questioned Butler's smartness and vigor as the military governor of a city or a district. The faults laid to his charge in such employments were the excess of these qualities and the conversion of them into self-willed tyranny and into fortune-making, through his brother, by unlawful use of his military authority. If we ask when Butler actually led troops in battle, we are confronted with a record in which that sort of service is conspicuously absent. In Louisiana he directed the field operations of his little army from New Orleans. On the James his timber observatory two hundred feet high at Bermuda Hundred, and its distant views of the theatre of war, were the standing joke of the army. The movement upon the fortifications of Richmond, at the end of September, 1864, upon which in his 'Book' he relies for proof of his capacity to "give an order in the field," is, to every soldier of experience, a complete illustration of the characteristic in question. There was nothing "in the field" about the order, except its caption. It was drawn up in camp on the south side of the James as an elaborate plan for a movement upon the north side. Its detail of the enemy's forces and positions is clear and apparently full. Its directions as to routes for advancing show study of the map. The effort to anticipate contingencies shows an active intellect. The orders as to equipment and hospital service are minute. The instructions as to conduct when Richmond should be entered were good, but an unnecessary stretch of prevision: "First catch your hare." In short, it was just such a plan as no commanding officer would ever dream of issuing if he expected to be with the fighting head of his own columns, when the inspiration of a true soldier seizes the unexpected opportunity and shapes it to his purpose. It was equally useless as an attempt to provide for the details of future contingencies, for they never happen as expected, and the order would only trammel the corps commanders at the front, to whom should be left large discretion with large responsibility. Its principal interest is as an academic exercise to show how many things the author could think of as likely to occur in such an expedition. The movement had no successful result, and there was apparent precisely that lack of personal and forceful leadership "in the field" which is the prime quality of a real general. That Gen. Butler was himself willing, as he says, to allow his "reputation as a commanding general to stand or fall" with the authorship of that order, is to give away his case.

Butler was professedly answering a criticism upon him which Gen. Smith had made, and which appears to have been contained in a private letter to Grant written at the beginning of July, 1864. In it he had spoken of Butler as being "helpless as a child on the field of battle." It is certainly curious to find so shrewd a disputant as Butler resting his vindication upon such a paper as this order, drawn up far from the "field of battle" for which it was prepared. The War Department had sent Gens. Meigs and Barnard to look into the situation as to Butler, and they reported that Butler was "a man of rare and great ability, but he has not experience and training to enable him to direct and control movements in battle." The form of this statement was not fortunate, because it might naturally be taken to be an objection to him as a volunteer officer. There was no lack of such officers who had shown their capacity "to direct and control movements in battle." Had Birney or Barlow, Terry or Miles, been in command, no such question would have been raised. Gens. Meigs and Barnard knew this so well that it is right to assume that their report referred to Gen. Butler's personal experience and history, and not to the fact that he was a volunteer officer.

Gen. Smith has, in his book, dealt also with some specific assertions of Gen. Butler regarding the facts of the Petersburg campaign or the personal relations of the parties. He shows conclusively that the attacks made upon him by Butler in the 'Book' are contradicted by the evidence of letters of the latter written during the campaign and long after, and by statements made by Butler to common friends. He shows that Butler is grossly inaccurate in historical facts; that he has been careless in using official records, if not wilfully perverting them. He shows that Butler had requested to have him in his command, and gave explicit evidence of his confidence in him as a soldier and a gentleman down to January, 1866, when he called him "a good soldier and an honest and reliable gentleman, with the same faults of temper I myself have." The last chapter of the book is devoted to a detailed comparison with the records of some of Gen. Butler's calumnious assertions. One was that Smith refused to give aid to Gen. Gillmore on the 20th of May, when the official evidence shows both that Gillmore did not need aid and that Butler himself ordered Smith to keep his brigades where they were, and refused to send reinforcements to Gillmore. Another was a charge of lack of promptness in a movement across the James River on June 21, when the record shows that Smith was to have no part in that movement, but was in fact ordered to march in the opposite direction. The crossing of the river by a single brigade is represented by Butler as a movement of two army corps. These things are so absurdly in contradiction with the facts that we prefer to regard them as reckless distortions of memory warped by passion rather than purposed misstatements, for Butler was far too shrewd to ignore the comparison with the record which was sure to come. His whole book is full of marks of the indolence of one to whom careful investigation is distasteful, but whose passionate advocacy carries him away into any assertion which occurs to him as likely to hurt his opponent, and blinds him to his own blunders and inconsistencies.

Gen. Smith has done his work thoroughly, and it reaches further than his own vindication. By his efficient exposure of the methods of 'Butler's Book' and the character of its author, he has done much to vindicate also the numerous distinguished men who were, like him, the targets for Butler's libels. Most of them were dead before the 'Book' appeared, but no candid reader of this little volume can avoid the judgment that there never was a case in which the maxim, *Falsus in uno, falsus in omnibus*, more fairly applied. The weakness of the whole structure is shown when one of its chief corner-stones is found to crumble at a touch. Instead of being a monument of greatness and patriotic services, the 'Book' is likely rather to be a standing proof that no self-exposure is so complete as that of the man who imagines that the reckless sophistries of the demagogue haranguing upon a street corner can be made to do duty as pages of permanent history.

TWO BOOKS ON JAPAN.

A Handbook for Travellers in Japan. By B. H. Chamberlain and W. B. Mason. Scribners. Pp. 459.

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Things Japanese. By Basil Hall Chamberlain. Yokohama: Kelly & Walsh; London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co. Pp. 503.

A VIVID illustration of the changes which have taken place in Japan during the last ten years is given by the difference between the second edition of 'Murray's Handbook to Japan,' dated 1883, and the third, just out. The first railway in Japan was opened in 1872, but it was only a short one, and in 1883 the jinrikisha was still the principal mode of travel; for which reason the guide-book was obliged to follow the highroads. At present there is a railway mileage of over 1,700 miles, covering almost the entire length of the main islands, one road running east and west; and this has compelled the editors entirely to rearrange much of their material. The basis of the new edition is still the admirable 'Handbook of Central and Northern Japan,' by Satow and Hawes, upon which all the other local guide-books are based, but which the growth of the railways had made antiquated as to routes, so that in order to preserve its usefulness it was necessary to give it a thorough overhauling. This task could not have been placed in better hands than those of Prof. Chamberlain and Mr. Mason, late of the Japanese Department of Communications. They have retained all that was valuable and available in the old guide, added much new matter, and brought the book throughout up to date. This improvement is as perceptible in the maps—of which there are no fewer than fifteen—as in the reading matter. There are also illustrations of Buddhist and Shinto temples, in Japanese style and on Japanese paper.

The introductory material has been reduced from 119 to 50 pages, chiefly by the omission of the elaborate treatises on zoölogy and botany, which were hardly in place in a guide-book; while among the new chapters we note an "outline of Japanese history," "celebrated personages," "Christian mission stations," "list of gods and goddesses," "shipment of curios," and "population of the chief cities." According to the last census, there are now among the cities in the empire seventeen with over 50,000 inhabitants and six with over 100,000. Tokyo is put down for 1,389,000, Osaka for 476,000, Kyoto for 279,000. Instead of beginning with Tokyo, the new edition starts with Yokohama, the port where most foreigners enter the country, and which has in a few decades grown up from a village into a city of 122,000 inhabitants. From Yokohama, too, most travellers make their excursions into the interior, as to which all needful instructions are given, including a lucid explanation of the complicated feeing system in inns. Exception may be made to the statement on p. 2 that Yokohama is reached from San Francisco in nineteen days. The *China* makes the trip easily in twelve days, and the average of the steamers is fifteen or sixteen; nineteen days being required only when a steamer goes via Hawaii, which happens once in three months. Apart from this statement, we have noticed only one oversight. In a guide-book dated 1893 one would expect some notice of the earthquake of 1891, which completely altered the summit of Fuji and marred its symmetry. The description here given of the summit is of its former condition. It seems but natural that Fuji, which has had no eruption since 1707, should have waked up to the national craving for a change which has been the fashion lately.

While the great earthquake is ignored in the guide-book, mention of it is made in a postscript to the second edition of Chamberlain's 'Things Japanese,' which may be looked on as an indispensable adjunct to the guide. Indeed, of the innumerable books written on Japan, the tourist will find these two the most useful to carry in his travelling-bag—one of them to show the way, the other to explain important topics in a convenient alphabetical arrangement; 'Things Japanese' being, in brief, a Japanese cyclopædia in one volume. The new edition is a great improvement on the first. Enlarged by a hundred pages, some of the less important matter has been eliminated, and new articles have been added on the following topics: archæology, birthdays, bran-bags, cats, chauvinism, classes of society, cloisonné, dances, embroidery, Empress, "English as she is Japped," fans, fires, foreign employees in Japan, Fuji, funerals, globe-trotters, incense parties, Little Spring, paper, pilgrimages, pipes, polo, population, salutations, story-tellers, tattooing, treaties and treaty revision, vegetable wax.

The information contained in these and the other articles is not only authoritative, but the most recent available, and what makes it more valuable still is that most articles have an appendix containing a list of books to be consulted by those who wish to make special studies. It is interesting to see, under the head of "Books on Japan," what Prof. Chamberlain considers the ten most useful books. They are Rein's 'Japan,' Griffis's 'Mikado's Empire,' Miss Bacon's 'Japanese Girls and Women,' Hildreth's 'Japan as It Was and Is,' the *Transactions of the Asiatic Society*, Black's 'Young Japan,' Alcock's 'Capital of the Tycoon,' Anderson's 'Descriptive and Historical Catalogue of Japanese and Chinese Paintings in the British Museum,' Mitford's 'Tales of Old Japan,' and Miss Bird's 'Unbeaten Tracks,' which, he thinks, remains the best English book of Japanese travel. But the liveliest and best of all popular books on Japan is in German, Netto's 'Papierschmetterlinge,' while of Pierre Loti's books "the opinion of the resident French population seems to be that they are superficial and inaccurate." Mr. Chamberlain concludes that "*the* book of Japanese travel, the companion work to Huc's ever-delightful 'Empire Chinois,' yet remains to be written." Coming from such an authority, this statement will prove a comfort to the innumerable tourists who invariably have literary designs on the Flowery Kingdom, and will sugar-coat the bitter pill contained in the discouraging statement that if in 1859 Léon Pagès made a list of 715 books on Japan, "there must be seventy times seven hundred now."

Of the articles added to the new edition, that on "chauvinism" is one of the most suggestive, inasmuch as it gives a vivid idea of the latest national mood, the sentiment of "Japan for the Japanese," which has taken the place of the indiscriminate aping of American and European ways. Respect for national costume and games has returned, and young Japan is determined not only to hold its own, but to be leader of Asia in modern warfare, to engross the trade of the Pacific, to form colonies in America, and to reform and revolutionize European painting, philosophy, and Christianity. The latter they must consider the easiest of these tasks, for, as Mr. Chamberlain remarks in his preface, they know well enough "that our Christian and humanitarian professions are really nothing but bunkum. The history of India, of Egypt, of Turkey, is no secret to them. More familiar still is the sweet reasonableness of California's treatment of the Chinese." Perhaps to help correct the tendency towards excessive chauvinism, Mr. Chamberlain pleads the cause of the foreign employee in Japan in a special article, wherein he enjoins writers not to forget, in their raptures over Japanese progress, the valuable work done by foreign experts employed by the Government. In the new article on fans, the shocking information is contained that one sees such abominable instances of foreign influence as fans decorated on one side with a lager-beer bottle, and on the other with a railway time-table. Very amusing is the article on "English as she is Japped," wherein are quoted such signs as these: "Milliner and Ladies' Outfatter," "The Improved Milk," "Carver and Gilder for Sale," "A Grog Shop, a Pot House" (over an excellent restaurant), etc.

It should be added that the printing, binding, and tasteful cover of this work are a credit to Japanese bookmaking, and capable of teaching a lesson to our own publishers, especially as to the way in which the volume opens at any place and stays open. To sum up: Mr. Chamberlain gives us a list of the ten most useful books on Japan because ten is the Japanese dozen. To make an American dozen of it we should add his own two books here reviewed.

ECONOMIC DEFINITIONS.

An Analysis of the Ideas of Economics. By L. P. Shirres. Longmans, Green & Co. 1893.

NOTHING could be more laudable than the aim of this author, for it cannot be denied that much of the writing upon political economy in recent years has been of a confusing character, and that much of the confusion has been caused by neglect of definition. A serious attempt, therefore, to provide a complete, systematic, and consistent set of economic definitions deserves to be heartily welcomed on all sides. Even if the attempt is unsuccessful, its failure may point the way by which better results can be attained, and make it increasingly difficult for writers incapable of logical analysis to pose as economists. Nor are the methods of this author less commendable than his purposes. He got his first stimulus from Austin, and he has endeavored to follow the principles laid down by Bain in his exposition of induction. As to the value of the example of Macleod and of the contributions of Jevons, which Mr. Shirres gratefully acknowledges, we do not altogether share his opinion; but it can be said with justice that neither of these writers has cause to complain of the statement of his theories. Whatever in them Mr. Shirres has changed, he has in our judgment improved.

Further than this, however, in the direction of praise we cannot go; for we find ourselves quite unable to share the complacency of the author over his "complete and satisfactory solutions" of the difficult problems of economic definition. We have found that these solutions owe their apparent completeness to the omission of refractory elements, and that they are satisfactory only to those who are willing to start with certain untenable assumptions. There is a notable degree of consistency in these definitions, we cheerfully admit; but their precision appears to us to be verbal, and to conceal much fatal ambiguity. It is impossible, within our limits, to examine the author's dialectic in detail, but we may indicate some of its fundamental errors. They arise mainly from the attempt to follow Jevons in excluding labor and the cost of production from all connection with the conception of value.

The definition of value proposed by Mr. Shirres is as follows: "The term 'value' is strictly applicable only to transferable things which possess utility and of which the quantity

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is limited; it denotes their estimated relative final utility, and it is measured by their price or purchasing power." Elsewhere it is declared that value is identical with final utility, and that utility and value are qualities of things. The term "transferable" has reference not to the possibility of physical change of position, but to that of change of ownership. The quantity of a thing is said to be limited when it is not "present in such quantity as to more than satisfy everybody." In order to narrow the issue, we shall regard transferability as meaning exchangeability, and we shall also assume that utility is necessarily implied in every exchange. For the present purpose, then, we may discard these elements as not in controversy, and we are thus brought to the proposition—Economically valuable things are things which are not present in such quantity as to more than satisfy everybody.

If now we try to make any use of this proposition, the delusive character of the theory of Jevons appears. If value is connected with labor, we can at once derive several fruitful propositions. It becomes evident, for instance, that anything existing in such quantity as to be procurable without labor will have no value If we are content to say that value means purchasing power, then no one will exchange what has cost him labor for what he can obtain without labor. But from Mr. Shirres's definition we can deduce only such corollaries as that if a man has got enough of a thing, he does not want any more of it; that things limited in quantity are valuable, and that valuable things are limited in quantity. The proposition is, in Kantian language, analytical, not synthetic, and whatever plausibility it has is due to the illicit introduction of the idea that it professes to exclude. The psychology of desire is sufficiently agreed upon to justify this assertion. Hindrance to attainment is essential to the conception of desire, and hindrance to attainment means that desire can be satisfied only by exertion or sacrifice. It is futile to attempt to disregard this element. *Tamen usque recurret.* If we recognize it, our difficulties immediately disappear. Then we discern that things are valuable when they cannot be attained without labor or sacrifice, and that the expression "limited in quantity" is but a way of stating this relation. Things are limited in quantity when we have to work to get them; or—supplying what was omitted for brevity—when such things are also useful and exchangeable, they are valuable in the economic sense.

The introduction of the term "final" or "marginal" does not help the case of Mr. Shirres. Jevons says that final utility is the degree of utility of the last addition to the existing stock of a thing. Mr. Shirres prefers to say that it is the utility of the last increment consumed. It is true that he declares that value is a quality of things, and not a relation; but if this were the fact, it is not apparent how the satisfaction of human desire could extinguish it, and this statement must be rejected as inconsistent. Value, in the sense of final utility, is a purely psychological conception, and means strength of desire. As satiety approaches, value, or intensity of desire, decreases. When satiety is attained, desire and value are extinguished. It may be conceded that when a man has eaten all the sausages he can contain, all the sausages in the world have no value in his eyes, but we contend that more than this must be known before we can practically determine the value of sausages. Economic science is not purely psychological; it must take into account the nature of things as well as that of men. That this is true we consider to be proved by the admissions of those who maintain the theory under criticism.

Thus, Mr. Shirres maintains that

> "Economics is a *quantitive* science—that is, it deals with pleasures and pains capable of quantitive measurement. . . . Men are compelled to measure the pleasures and pains due to wealth and labor. If a man gives six shillings a pound for one commodity and two shillings a pound for another, . . . the last portion of the former yields him three times as much pleasure as the corresponding portion of the latter. We cannot tell the absolute pleasure he gets from either, but it is sufficient for our purpose to know that, be he rich or be he poor, he obtains three times as much from the one as from the other."

Again, he observes that, if a man buys one thing rather than another, "we have absolutely no other criterion of the comparative utility of the things, and of his desire for them, than his action in purchasing one rather than the other." It is certainly indisputable that we have no calculus of pleasures in the subjective sense, and it seems then, after all, that we know, and can know, absolutely nothing concerning final utility except what is revealed to us in the phenomena of price. If price varies, we may infer that final utility varies, but we can never know that final utility varies unless we know that price varies.

Now, upon familiar principles of induction, it is evident that the *causes* of price and its variations are to be sought elsewhere than in propositions concerning final utility that are deducible only from our knowledge of prices. We repeat that we cheerfully concede the truth of the proposition that a man pays more for one thing than another because he desires it more—which is the kernel of Jevons's theory—but we insist that since we know nothing of the intensity of desire except as measured by things, the cause (in the scientific sense) of value is to be sought in the study of things. We cannot measure desires except by things; but we cannot measure things by desires, and we can measure things by other standards than desires.

In order to complete our criticism we should notice some fallacies of composition and division that are involved in the final-utility theory, but our limits forbid, and we must here dismiss Mr. Shirres's unsuccessful, but praiseworthy and instructive, attempt to extract sunbeams from that cucumber.

John Inglis, Lord Justice-General of Scotland. A Memoir. By James Crabb Watt, Advocate. Edinburgh: William Green & Sons. 1893.

THIS book is dedicated to the lawyers of Scotland, and it is natural to suppose that its interest is for them alone. But as we turn its pages we find that Mr. Watt has taken a view of his subject so broad as much to enlarge the circle of his readers. Perhaps we should assume that no Scotsman thinks anything that pertains to his land unworthy of his attention, and those who are at all acquainted with its internal history since the Reformation will be edified by the intelligent treatment which many details here receive. The book, in fact, deserves the apparently obsolescent title 'The Life and Times of,' etc., for the personality of its subject would be but faint and shadowy without its historical background. But for several reasons we think that such members of the legal profession in America as have leisure and disposition to undertake studies having no direct practical bearing upon their work, will not regret the time spent in perusing this memoir.

In spite of the fact that the Scotch are an English-speaking people, receiving their laws from the British Parliament, and that their court of last appeal is the House of Lords, of which it may happen that no Scottish lawyer is a member, their jurisprudence is essentially Continental. During the greater part of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries those who were preparing for the Scottish bar repaired to the universities of Paris, or Bruges, or Leyden for instruction not only in philosophy but also in the elements of the civil and the canon law. As many as seven or eight years were frequently employed in this liberal education, followed by attendance at court for a year or more before admission to advocateship. It was not till after the Union that any faculty of law existed in Scotland, nor was the instruction given by it of much value for more than a hundred years thereafter. Lectures on the civil law were given in Latin until the middle of the last century, and it was not until the second quarter of this one that examinations ceased to be conducted in that tongue. Trial by jury in civil cases was introduced some years after the birth of Inglis, and its footing was for a long time precarious. It is still viewed with some disfavor by the Scottish bar.

Prior to 1850 oral argument was practically not in use in the courts of Scotland, except in the most important trials. Almost all litigation was conducted by written pleadings. These "minutes of debate" gave great opportunity for the display of recondite lore, and their suppression caused a great change in the habits of lawyers. From that date, it may be said, the "corpus juris" ceased to be regularly quoted as an authority. While these written pleadings promoted erudition, they fostered prolixity and irrelevancy, and it was found impossible to dispose of business in accordance with modern requirements without employing a more expeditious system. Inglis had been trained to this art, and he was a master of it; but he, with Moncreiff—who was equally accomplished—procured the statute that extinguished it; and although there are men living who remember it, it is practically as dead as the scholastic dialectic. Yet it is impossible to look upon the array of these tomes on the shelves of the "Law Room"—the catacombs of the law—representing the toil of three centuries of Scottish advocates, without a certain regret, and Moncreiff himself declared that the abolition of written pleadings was the termination of the classical school of Scottish jurisprudence.

We have indicated some of the changes that took place during Inglis's legal career, but it is not our intention to attempt to enumerate them all. For more than thirty years he was the greatest figure on the Scottish bench, and may be said to have directed the course of legal evolution during the Victorian era, with so much wisdom as to suggest the comparison of his career with that of John Marshall. He witnessed a nearly complete transformation of legal procedure, and mainly upon the lines marked out by himself. As a lawyer his fame is excelled, if at all, only by that of Stair. Although he was a Conservative in politics, and a typical Presbyterian of the Scottish school, he was always active as a reformer, and he opposed no changes out of mere bigotry.

It is a different world from ours, as we have said, of which this memoir gives us a glimpse, but it suggests some instructive comparisons, and no one can follow the career of this great judge without feeling its elevating influence.

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He made his way at the bar by his ability and integrity. He was of an honorable lineage, which of course aided his progress, but his early promotion to office was entirely justified by his professional attainments, and his many years of judicial preëminence were as satisfactory to the bar as to himself. He was not a genial man, but he was sober without being morose. He scarcely participated in social life, and we venture to express the unpopular opinion that abstention from these pleasures, or participation to a very limited extent, is imperative for most judges of the highest courts. To spend five or six hours at a dinner party two or three times a week is not an ideal practice for men with calendars far in arrear, and with demands on their scholarship that can be honorably satisfied only by the devotion of all their time not reserved for the preservation of health. This may, we fear, be regarded as a counsel of perfection, but the pure fame of John Inglis is attainable only by those willing

"To scorn delights, and live laborious days."

Into the particulars of Inglis's life we need not enter. They are detailed with good taste and judgment by Mr. Watt, although his tone is, in our view, unwisely laudatory. For the most part, the skilful biographer allows the achievements of his hero to speak for themselves. But as Inglis had destroyed all his letters and personal papers before his death, Mr. Watt is pardonable for frequent resort to generalities. We have to thank him for much information, not only as to legal antiquities, but also as to the kirks and universities of Scotland, in whose affairs Inglis took an active and intelligent interest. He was several times Lord Rector and Chancellor, defeating Gladstone on two occasions. His speeches as given in the appendix to this volume are not of the highest order of oratory, but are scholarly and impressive. One specimen of his pleading before a jury, in the celebrated trial of Madeleine Smith for the murder of her lover, is a model of what such speeches should be. Altogether this biography is of sterling merit, and young lawyers especially may be recommended to take its lessons to heart.

Round London. By Montagu Williams, Q. C. Macmillan & Co. 1892.

As cities increase in area, it becomes more and more difficult for one half of the inhabitants to know how the other half lives. A man may live all his life in New York and know practically nothing of the city outside of Broadway and two or three of the up-town avenues, and it is still easier for the Londoner to ignore vast regions of the modern Babylon which are not in the direct line of his business or pleasure. And along with this ignorance of localities goes a corresponding ignorance of the manners and customs of the inhabitants and of their peculiar methods of carrying on the struggle for existence. In order to ascertain the true local color of many parts of London, one must either make a great number of studies on the spot, like Mr. Besant, or sit for years on the magistrate's bench, like Mr. Williams. A conscientious magistrate, such as he was, is not satisfied with a rapid disposition of the cases that come before him, but makes investigations on his own account, and finds that an accurate knowledge of his district and of the characteristics of its people is essential to a proper administration of justice. In this volume Mr. Williams gives an interesting account of his magisterial experiences both in the East and West Ends of London, and incidentally throws light on many of the social problems that vex the dwellers in all great cities. His chapters on life in the West End deal largely with money-lenders and their victims, with gamblers, with the constantly recurring development of the young betting man into the embezzler, and with other matters which concern mainly the moneyed classes. He describes the familiar struggle of the newly rich for social recognition very much as others have done, but we note as a novelty the suggestion that the ranks of the Liberal Unionists have been largely filled by gentlemen with social aspirations, who hoped that their change of political faith would make them *personæ gratæ* at the houses of the Conservative leaders.

But it was in the East End of London that his best work was done, the work that earned him the title of "the poor man's magistrate"; and it is in describing the hard conditions that attach to life in that district, and the peculiar trials and temptations of the poor, that he appears at his best. On the whole, the picture he gives us of life in the slums is not quite so saddening as some others have been, mainly, perhaps, because he makes the most of such humorous elements as are to be found in that slough of despond. But, on the other hand, he bitterly condemns the statement, which has been carelessly made in several quarters, that the poverty and misery have been exaggerated; and he is convinced that the falsity of this charge would become apparent to any one who should take the trouble to stroll through Bethnal Green and Shoreditch. What is undoubtedly true, and comforting as far as it goes, is, that there has been a very considerable improvement in some of these localities during the past ten years. Among other signs of this tendency Mr. Williams refers to a prosperous public house which, by the strict enforcement of certain simple rules, has become a decent and respectable place of entertainment, and actually exercises a good influence on its patrons. The rules are given here in the hope that they may be generally adopted by the saloon-keepers of New York:

(1.) No smoking on the premises is permitted.

(2.) No loud talking or obscene language is tolerated.

(3.) No customer is supplied with more than one drink until he has been off the premises for half an hour, at the end of which period only one more drink is supplied.

(4.) No refreshment is served to any one who appears to be under the influence of drink; and if one of a company of friends is in this state, none of them will be served.

Animal Coloration: An Account of the Principal Facts and Theories Relating to the Colors and Markings of Animals. By Frank E. Beddard, M.A. Oxon., F.R.S.E., etc. Macmillan & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. viii, 379. Illustrated.

Most of the recent works on the coloration of animals are the efforts of advocates of natural selection more or less completely possessed by the idea that whatever in its structure is useful or beneficial to the individual or the species is a result of selection, and, further, that the thing is explained by discovery of such use or benefit. From sources of this character other than a one-sided view is not to be expected; their examples are carefully chosen (the few that meet their wishes) from among myriads of unsuitable ones, and their arguments all lead to what, in their minds, is the one inevitable conclusion. Naturally their lenses induce an appreciable amount of distortion in observations and deductions.

Desire to obviate this one-sidedness accounts in great part for the publication of the present book. Prof. Beddard evidently knows the matter as well as any of those who have written upon it in such lines, but he does not agree with their treatment of the premises and cannot accept their opinions without serious modification. He has brought together the familiar instances, interpretations, and pleadings, indicated their strongest features as well as their imperfections, and adduced different views, lines of thought, and determinations. He has submitted the so-called facts to actual experiment whenever possible, and has thereby occasioned some trimming among the original sponsors, with an occasional exhibit of uneven temper. Fortunately, the author has been able to follow his way in the pursuit of truth serenely and in comparative impartiality, producing a most readable and important essay toward the elucidation of the subject.

Coloration, its definitions and kinds, variation from environment or otherwise, adaptability, protective coloring, mimicry, sexual colors, dimorphism, etc., are the topics under consideration. Proved selection only is accepted. The attitude in respect to all the phenomena is most inquisitive; it may be illustrated by the discussion of one of the strongest cases cited in support of the theory of protective or aggressive mimicry, that of the fly *Volucella bombylans*, which closely resembles the humble-bees in the nests of which its young are parasitic. A beautifully colored plate sets forth the great likeness; the text states the habits with the supposed benefits of the resemblance, suggests that a necessary preliminary to theories of color perception should be determination of the powers of vision, questions whether close resemblance deceives bees so quick to detect intruders of their own species and exact resemblance, asks whether the flies enter the nest by a fortunate raid or really deceive the bees—if the young fly may not crawl in from an egg laid near the entrance—points out numerous other parasites without the likeness, shows that other volucellæ, in much less kindred forms, and apparently no more liable to forfeit life for presumption, possess a similar habit of breeding, and mentions that if the same unintelligible liking for keeping pets among other hymenoptera obtains among the bees and wasps, it might give the series of facts an entirely different meaning, one not quite in accord with the theory of mimicry. The credulity that smothers hope of scientific advancement is not here in evidence. The case of the fly is immediately preceded by an equally remarkable one, discovered by Semper, that of a species of worm, *Myxicola*, found among the polyps of a coral, *Cladocora cæspitosa*, which it mimics so nearly as to be distinguishable most readily by its quickness in retraction. This was perfect support for the theory of protective mimicry until the worm, always resembling the polyp, was found to be common amid all sorts and colors of surroundings; then it was decided that mimicry was out of the question and that the resemblance was simply and wholly accidental.

Mr. Beddard's work is well done, and there is a good deal of it. When he revises, he will no doubt change this, from page 276: "Birds which build their nests in exposed situations appear to be almost always dull-colored; on the other hand, the females of those species which build in holes, or construct elaborate nests that completely conceal them, are gene-

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rally as brightly colored in one sex as in the other."

Petronii Cena Trimalchionis, mit deutscher Uebersetzung und erklärenden Anmerkungen, von Ludwig Friedlaender, Professor in Königsberg. Leipzig: Hirzel.

THE work which has come down to us under the name of Petronius is one of singular interest to the student of literature as well as to the philologist. The author was a "realist" eighteen centuries before the time of Zola and Maupassant, and in power and artistic skill is little, if at all, inferior to them. Moreover, the book is a perfect mine of information as to the manners and customs and the language of the people of the smaller Italian cities under the Empire. But, though interesting in so many ways, Petronius has waited long for a competent annotator. Until recently there was no edition of any portion of the 'Satiricon' with good explanatory notes. At last, however, we have an edition of the "Cena Trimalchionis"—the most entertaining and valuable part of the work—from the hand of Prof. Ludwig Friedlaender, the well-known author of the 'Sittengeschichte Roms.'

He has prefixed to the text a very learned and elaborate introduction of some sixty-five pages. This begins with a literary and historical study of the "Cena," in which Prof. Friedlaender states his own views upon many of the questions which perplex the student of Petronius. Like most modern scholars, he is inclined to identify the author of the 'Satiricon' with the Gaius Petronius whose death is described by Tacitus. He holds with Mommsen that the scene of the "Cena" is laid in Cumæ, and argues very ingeniously in favor of this theory; but, as he himself acknowledges (p. 8), if the reading *Cumis* in c. 48 is sound, Mommsen's view is untenable, and it seems easier to find another solution of the difficulty than to alter the text. The time in which the adventures of Encolpius are supposed to have taken place is, according to Friedlaender, the latter part of the reign of Claudius or the beginning of that of Nero. This view is supported by many weighty arguments, and appears on the whole preferable to that of Mommsen, who assigns the events of the story to the time of Augustus. The second part of the introduction is very curious, being a letter of Leibnitz to the Princess Louise von Hohenzollern, describing a representation of the "Banquet of Trimalchio" which took place in 1702 at the court of Hanover. The rest of the introduction is devoted to an admirable study of life in the smaller Italian cities in the first century A. D. The editor's previous labors peculiarly fitted him for this task, and he has executed it in a masterly manner. Next in order comes the text of the "Cena," which is substantially that of Buecheler's third edition. It is accompanied by a German translation, which is both faithful and idiomatic. The explanatory notes occupy the remainder of the book.

Petronius is an author who is extremely difficult to annotate. There is so much in him that is obscure that the editor is constantly tempted to be diffuse; and on the other hand there is great danger that, in striving to be brief, one may overlook some real difficulty. Prof. Friedlaender has sometimes erred in the latter direction; for example, he passes over without comment the famous "matavitatau" in c. 62, in which Robinson Ellis now sees a cabalistic oath or formula. But on the whole his comments are very satisfactory. They are clear and concise, and display a vast range of learning. While one may not agree with the editor on all points, he is sure to derive instruction and profit from the book, which is one to be heartily commended to all students of Roman life and literature.

Felix Mendelssohn-Bartholdy: Sein Leben und seine Werke. Von August Reissmann. Leipzig: List & Francke; New York: Westermann.

THE appearance of a third edition of Reissmann's biography of Mendelssohn might perhaps be taken as an indication that the pendulum is beginning to swing the other way again. It is now universally conceded that in his own day this composer was as greatly overrated as was Meyerbeer. Indeed, it was the excessive vogue of these Semitic musicians, as compared with the Teutonic masters, that caused Wagner to hurl his pamphlets on 'Judaism in Music' and 'On Conducting' at his contemporaries. He was indignant not only at seeing Meyerbeer idolized while he himself was abused, but at seeing Bach and Beethoven pushed aside for Mendelssohn, or interpreted only in the latter's manner. It was owing partly to this attack, partly to the inherent weakness of much of Mendelssohn's work, that his popularity has been gradually on the wane for two decades. Instead of being the most favored of all composers on the programmes of orchestral concerts and piano recitals, he is now conspicuously neglected—too much so, in truth, for, as Wagner (who was a much more just and discriminating judge than most musicians are aware) pointed out, Mendelssohn had "a specific musical endowment equalled by few other musicians before him," and some of his overtures and pianoforte works are of permanent worth. The great pianist of the day, Mr. Paderewski, has expressed his admiration for Mendelssohn, and has succeeded in revealing his genius anew to a surprised world, and there are other signs that, as we have hinted, the pendulum is recovering from its extreme oscillation, and that in the future Mendelssohn will be rated as one of the true musical geniuses, though not one of the first rank.

August Reissmann is what the Germans call a *Vielschreiber*, which may be freely translated as a compiler of many books. His literary method is artificial, his style diffuse, and his judgment often erratic. In this case, however, he had a sympathetic subject; and that his treatment of it has given satisfaction is shown by the fact that a third edition has been called for in a country where few books ever reach the success of a second. Free use is made of letters, which are of all documents the most welcome and valuable to biographers; and Mendelssohn was a great letter-writer. There is an excellent portrait and a picture of the Mendelssohn monument in Leipzig, but no index, and a table of contents of only ten lines for 345 pages. When will Germans learn that a book without an index is only half a book?

Commentaries on the History of England from the Earliest Times to 1688. By Montagu Burrows, Chichele Professor of Modern History in the University of Oxford; Captain R.N., F.S.A., etc.; "Officier de l'Instruction Publique, France." London: William Blackwood & Sons.

IT will be observed that Prof. Burrows is a Captain in the Royal Navy as well as one of the professors of modern history at Oxford. Freeman called him "the learned Commander and gallant Professor." But he has now spent a life in the study of English history, and he is able to produce a running commentary on it which shows thorough familiarity with the subject, contains many useful remarks, is easy reading, and, considering that the Professor is an admirer of George III. and a devout Anglican, must be pronounced remarkably tolerant and fair.

Perhaps the Anglican bias is the most apparent. It betrays itself, if we mistake not, in the characters given of those two great nursing-mothers of the State Church, Elizabeth and Anne, the Professor's portrait of the first of whom is such as we should have thought it impossible to paint after recent disclosures and criticisms, while his portrait of the second as a woman of statesmanlike judgment is totally new to history. The Professor would evidently like to believe that the series of changes which the Anglican Church underwent during the sixteenth century were the workings of her own spiritual life, having for its organ her ecclesiastical assembly, not imposed on her by political power. The contention is hopeless. Four successive sovereigns, or three sovereigns and a council of regency, arbitrarily enforced their personal will and imprinted their personal character upon as many phases of a long and fluctuating revolution. There is not the slightest reason for believing that the clergy concurred in any of the movements except the reaction under Mary, which they certainly welcomed and against the reversal of which they protested, though their protest was ignored by the Government. Perhaps nothing is more incredible than that the spiritual life of the nation, or any large part of it, should have run of itself into the exact mould in which Elizabeth finally cast the State Church, and which was the resultant of her personal ritualism on one hand and her political antagonism to the Papacy on the other.

Prof. Burrows retains enough of the proverbial joviality of his original profession to make him take a very pleasant view of all persons and events. To him not only is almost everything good, but the reverse of almost everything is good also. He applauds Marlborough's war and he applauds the Treaty of Utrecht, the work of Marlborough's enemies, by which the fruits of his victories were thrown away. He glorifies Chatham and he smiles upon the coming of Bute. Optimism must be nearer the truth than pessimism, otherwise the net result of history would not be, as it is, improvement; but optimism is not the truth. As in the physical world there are disorders which our intelligence cannot reconcile with perfect order, so in history there are calamities which are not blessings in disguise.

Historical and Descriptive Account of the Island of Cape Breton, and of its Memorials of the French Régime; with bibliographical, historical, and critical notes. By J. G. Bourinot. Montreal: W. F. Brown & Co. 1892. Illustrated, 4to, pp. 183.

THIS volume is a separate issue of a paper published in the Transactions of the Royal Society of Canada for 1891. In it a brief sketch of the singularly uneventful history of the island of Cape Breton is given, together with some account of its present condition and resources. An appendix contains bibliographical and critical material in which some of the more important original documents illustrative of the early history are presented in full. The work is characterized by painstaking research among all the known sources of information concerning the island, and possesses considerable historical

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value. Dr. Bourinot is commendably cautious in dealing with the vexed questions of the voyages of the Norsemen, the landfall of the Cabots, and the problematical early visits of the Basque and Breton fishermen. To the account of the two famous sieges of Louisbourg, with which the general interest in the island begins and ends, he adds little of importance, merely correcting or amplifying in some of the minor details the story as told by Mr. Parkman and other writers.

The most interesting of the closing chapters is that relating to the French Acadians, who, to the number of about 15,000, form a sixth of the population, the greater part of the remainder being of Scotch descent. They are a simple, kindly people, who cling tenaciously to their language, their old faith, and, in many cases, to the primitive attire of their ancestors—to the Norman kirtle, for instance. Though called Acadians, they are not descendants of the expatriated Nova Scotians, who were not permitted by the British Government to remove to Cape Breton, but of the original French colonists and a few immigrants in the latter part of the last century. The name Acadia, which originally included this island, Dr. Bourinot says, is "obviously a Micmac or Souriquois affix, used in connection with other words to describe the natural characteristics of a place or locality (*ākăde*)." In support of this assertion he gives a list of seventeen names with this termination, one of which, Shubenacadie (ground-nut place), is still in use. Several maps, plans, and illustrations add to the interest and value of the volume, but we regret to say that the table of errata which the author was obliged to add might be considerably enlarged.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aulard, F. A. Science, Patrie, Religion. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Ayres, Anne. Life and Work of William Augustus Muhlenberg. 4th ed. Whittaker.
Baedeker's United States, with an Excursion into Mexico. Leipzig: Karl Baedeker; New York: Scribners. $3.60.
Bethune, J. G. The Third Man. Cassell. 50 cents.
Bickersteth, M. Japan As We Saw It. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Scribners. $5.
Black, William. Adventures in Thule. Harpers. 80c.
Catherwood, Mrs. Mary H. Old Kaskaskia. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Columbia's Emblem: Indian Corn. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 40 cents.
Cone, Rev. Orello. The Gospel and its Earliest Interpretations. Putnams. $1.75.
Coppée, François. The Rivals. Harpers. 50 cents.
Dale, Darley. Lottie's Wooing. Cassell. $1.
Dickens, Charles. The Cricket on the Hearth. [Riverside Literature Series.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Franay, Gabriel. Le Château des Airelles. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Gautier, Judith. Le Vieux de la Montagne. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Hanus, Prof. P. H. Geometry in the Grammar School: An Essay. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25 cents.
Harte, Bret. Sally Dows, and Other Stories. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Juglar, Clement. A Brief History of Panics in the United States. Putnams. $1.
Kebble, T. E. The Agricultural Laborer: A Short Summary of his Position. New ed. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Lillie, Arthur. The Influence of Buddhism on Primitive Christianity. London: Sonnenschein: New York: Scribners. $1.
Lowell, D. O. S. Jason's Quest. Boston: Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 50 cents.
Macaulay's Essays on Milton and Addison. Boston: Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 42 cents.
Matthews, Brander. The Story of a Story, and Other Stories. Harpers. $1.25.
Maycock, W. P. Electric Lighting and Power Distribution. Part II. London: Whittaker; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.
Meline, J. F. Mary Queen of Scots and her Latest English Historian. New ed. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. $1.50.
Mitchell, Rev. Thomas. Conflict of the Nineteenth Century. Universal Book Co. $2.
Monniot, Mlle. V. Madame Rosely. Cassell. $1.
Morfill, W. R. The Story of Poland. [The Story of the Nations.] Putnams. $1.50.
Morris, W. O'C. Napoleon, Warrior and Ruler. Putnams. $1.50.
Müller, F. M. Theosophy; or, Psychological Religion. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
Munroe, Kirk. Raftmates: A Story of the Great River. Harpers. $1.25.
Osgood, Mrs. Irene. The Shadow of Desire. Cleveland Publishing Co.
Peddie, Alexander. Recollections of Dr. John Brown. Scribners. $1.50.
Pelham, Prof. H. F. Outlines of Roman History. Putnams. $1.75.
Phillips's Business Directory of New York City. 1893. W. Phillips & Co.
Poems by Two Brothers. Macmillan. $1.50.
Pope, Rev. G. U. The Naladiyar; or, Four Hundred Quatrains in Tamil. Oxford: Clarendon Press: New York: Macmillan.
Renton, William. Outlines of English Literature. [University Extension Manuals.] Scribners. $1.
Rowbotham, J. F. The History of Music. New ed. Scribners. $2.50.
Saint-Amand, Imbert de. Women of the Valois Court. Scribners. $1.25.
Southworth, Mrs. E. D. E. N. The Fatal Marriage. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Spencer, Rev. F. E. Did Moses Write the Pentateuch After All? London: Elliot Stock.
Stillé, C. J. Major-General Anthony Wayne and the Pennsylvania Line in the Continental Army. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Stories of New York. Scribners. 50 cents.
Underhill, John. The Poetical Works of John Gay. 2 vols. London: Lawrence & Bullen: New York: Scribners. $3.50.
Wells, Prof. Webster. An Academic Arithmetic. Boston: Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. $1.
Wiley, William H. and Sara K. The Yosemite, Alaska, and the Yellowstone. John Wiley & Sons.
Wordsworth, Rev. Charles. Annals of My Life, 1847—1856. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
Zangwill, I. "Merely Mary Ann." Raphael Tuck & Sons.

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OFFICE OF THE
Atlantic Mutual
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The Trustees, in conformity with the Charter of the Company, submit the following Statement of its affairs on the 31st of December, 1892.

Premiums on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1892, to 31st December, 1892.	$3,690,250 88
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1892	1,472,142 48
Total Marine Premiums	$5,162,393 36
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1892, to 31st December, 1892	$3,759,193 05
Losses paid during the same period	$1,466,178 06
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$738,617 09

The Company has the following assets, viz.:

United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks	$7,816,455 00
Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise	2,027,000 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at	1,029,345 26
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable	1,336,622 46
Cash in Bank	276,262 99
Amount	$12,485,685 71

Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profits will be paid to the holders thereof or their legal representatives, on and afte Tuesday, the seventh of February next.

The outstanding certificates of the issue of 1888 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the seventh of February next, from which date all interest thereon will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment, and cancelled.

A dividend of FORTY PER CENT. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company for the year ending 31st December, 1892, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the second of May next.

By order of the Board,
J. H. CHAPMAN, Secretary.

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